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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 16, 1905.

The Week.

Congress at the late session went only so far in the direction of reforming the land laws as to amend the Lien Land law of 1897, which the Public Lands Commission had called "scandalous." Hereafter, the holder of lands which have been included in a forest reserve cannot exchange them for other timbered lands, but must take lands of some other sort. Thus is ended a system under which, in eight years, it is said that two million acres of forest outside the reserves has already come into the hands of the large speculators and land-grant railroads. A recent report from the Commissioner of the General Land Office states that these roads still hold more than two million acres in the reserves, and the amended law comes when just half the possible mischief has already been done. But the Timber and Stone act under which such lands may regularly be acquired, remains on the books, and is as sorely in need of revision. Under it, the purchase of Government land, 160 acres to one person, is authorized at $2.50 per acre, when the applicant swears that the land is worth more for timber or stone than for agriculture. "It is an invitation to steal," said a Western publicist, of this statute. "Unless he can sell it, 160 acres of timber won't do the individual the slightest good. It is not enough to warrant him building sawmills, or transportation facilities to get his lumber or logs to market. Consequently, he sells it at the first opportunity to the corporations who inspired the law." One incentive to fraud arises from the fact that lumbering is an industry which must be conducted on a large scale, while the Government's policy has always been in theory to distribute the land among small holders. The Commission's plan out of the difficulty is to sell merely the standing timber in large tracts and afterwards divide up the land.

The laws under which the Government timber lands have got into the control of speculators were based on wrong principles. Those relating to agricultural lands need merely a thorough stiffening. Thus, the homestead law prescribes a residence of five years, the building of a house, and the cultivation of a certain amount of land before securing a United States patent to 160 acres. This might be an effective provision against the speculator, making his operations too tedious and expensive to be worth while, except for the commutation clause which enables the settler to reduce his necessary residence to fourteen months by a money payment of which $1.50 per acre is the minimum. The Desert Land law is supposed to permit the settler to take up arid lands to the extent of 320 acres for a nominal price if he does the work necessary to reclaim them. The principle of this law is all very well, but the Commission finds that it, too, in practice has been "an instrument of speculation, fraud, and perjury." If Congress neglects the subject for many years longer, the mischief will be past undoing. One difficulty in securing an overhauling of this subject is that, while it is of intense interest to the States directly affected, a great part of the country neither knows nor cares anything at all about it.

A considerable amount of Congressional work is to be done this year after Congress has adjourned. The Senate Finance Committee has been authorized to sit during the summer recess, which is believed to mean that it will take testimony on the tariff question. The Senate also passed Mr. Kean's resolution empowering the Committee on Interstate Commerce to investigate railroad rates and their regulation. This committee is planning to meet on April 10 and hold hearings for a month or six weeks. Last summer, in spite of the campaign, time was found for the Joint Merchant Marine Commission to travel to all the chief shipping centres, and the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections to visit Salt Lake City and make special inquiries as to the eligibility of Senator Smoot. In November most of the members of the House Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce, with a few Senators for company, visited the Isthmus of Panama to study the canal work. It is rather curious that none of this overtime work brought any results in the session just closed. The Marine Commission's recommendations went over to next year, the Mormon Senator finished the first third of his term on Saturday week, still unmolested, and the two houses failed to come to an agreement on the canal zone bill.

If the Federal lawmakers have been going slow in the matter of regulating railroad rates, the members of State Legislatures have felt no hesitation in the matter. A half-dozen of the States not already supplied with railroad commissions are providing them as quickly as the legislative machinery will work. Indiana will have a commission of two Republicans and one Democrat appointed by the Governor. Washington has a new law creating a commission of the same size and method of appointment. In Montana a law providing for an elective commission has been passed by a Republican Legislature, but vetoed by the Democratic Governor Toole, out of whose hands the positions would be taken by the bill as passed. Even the Territory of Oklahoma has a new rate bill almost ready for passage. Gov. La Follette of Wisconsin is leaving his seat in the Senate vacant while he sees to the progress through the Legislature of the rate commission bill, the last of his reform measures to be enacted into law. Of course, the laws differ from each other and from the rate commission laws previously in force in some of the States, but the sudden movement to pass such laws is an extraordinary response to the campaign which brought such meagre results from Congress. Many of the State commissions now in office are little more than ornamental, but if, in the recess of Congress, they all try to demonstrate their efficiency, a mass of interesting experimental data may be available by the time our national legislators tackle the job again.

Testimony by the freight auditor of the Santa Fé last week that his road paid more than $1,000,000 in rebates in the year 1902 alone, should be of deep interest to President Roosevelt. His battleship-loving Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Paul Morton, was Vice-President of the Santa Fé at the time. He ought to know all about the details. He ought also to be able to explain why we must pass a new law giving the Interstate Commerce Commission power to fix rates, instead of enforcing the criminal provisions of the old law against rebates. The mere fact that a prosecution of that kind would compel the serving of a summons upon a member of Mr. Roosevelt's Cabinet would not, Mr. Morton may be sure, stay the President's hand.

The *Nebraska State Journal* contributes to the discussion of the direct-primary bill before the Legislature a comparison of the cost of the proposed new nominating method with the old convention system. The Republican State Convention last year cost the delegates (or some one else) for carfare alone almost $4,000. Other necessary expenses amounted to some $3,000. Two other State Conventions, the Democratic and Populist, are estimated to have cost another $7,000. But each county had previously held a party convention, the cost of all of which must have mounted to some $18,000; and when the expenses incident to the nomination of six Congressmen are added—$1,500 each, ac-

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cording to a low estimate—the total cost of the convention system to the people of the State is shown to be above $40,000. This figure includes only the most necessary charges; the travelling expenses being based on special half-fare rates. In contrast, it is pointed out that there are about 1,600 voting precincts in Nebraska; and in Lincoln, where the Republicans have adopted the direct primary plan, the expense is a little less than $15 for each precinct. For the whole State the cost would, therefore, be approximately $24,000. The figures seem to furnish a sufficient answer to the objections urged against the bill on the ground that it would involve great outlay.

Political corruption in Connecticut is such an old story that the statements which Dr. Newman Smyth made on Thursday before the Judiciary Committee of the General Assembly are likely to fall on indifferent ears. The whole State knew that Bulkeley and Fessenden were making corrupt campaigns for the United States Senatorship. Bulkeley apparently had the longer purse, for he won with flying colors. If one may judge public opinion by utterances of the press, pretty much everybody in Connecticut was satisfied but Dr. Smyth and a few other fussy people who labor under the delusion that the Ten Commandments have a place in politics. Dr. Smyth, with singular persistence, still refuses to acquiesce in the Legislature's covenant with death. He believes that $150,000 was spent in corrupting the voters, and he offers to put prosecuting attorneys on the trail of gross bribery. He wants to enforce the Penal Code. A man of his years ought to know that the district attorneys do not care to be put on the trail of bribery—moreover, that the bare mention of penal codes in the presence of a United States Senator, president of a large life-insurance company, and liberal advertiser, is rank discourtesy, as out of date as John Knox.

Vermont cities and towns voted for the third time on the question of license or no-license on March 7, and nine more communities are added to the territory under voluntary local prohibition. In the first year of the new law, 1903, there were 91 license towns; the next year there were 40, and for the coming year there will be only 31. The Vermont cities seem to be developing habits of discontent with whichever system they happen to have in operation. Barre, which voted for license a year ago by a majority of 78, went the other way this time by 95, while Rutland, which was a license town in 1903, but became "dry" a year ago, has now gone back to license. As the Rutland *Herald* remarked the day before election, referring to the experience with local prohibition, while "things are not as they ought to be, . . . the traffic is neither as extensive nor as offensive as it was in the days of State prohibition."

We have frequently called attention to a growing uneasiness in the South itself at the restriction of the franchise, notably in Virginia, where there is danger of the State's becoming the property of a small white oligarchy. Somewhat the same feeling is apparent in Alabama. The Birmingham *Age-Herald*, commenting on the plan to levy a poll-tax as an inducement to voting in New York, notes that it is an aim directly opposite to that of the Alabama poll-tax. It then adds that the time is fast coming when the Alabama policy will be modified. "The cumulative feature of the Alabama plan," it continues, "must be removed unless the State is willing to be governed by a small and by no means select electorate, and is willing to have a large body of whites who cannot vote and who are therefore indifferent to all public duties." This is precisely the danger which comes from the limitation of the suffrage. Once begun, there is great difficulty in stopping. Rule out negroes first, and you naturally feel like discriminating against the poor whites; then your unscrupulous politicians find an easy excuse for still further limitations which promise to keep themselves in power. The awakening in Alabama is hopeful, but it should include the reënfranchisement of qualified negroes as well.

A foolish strike on the Subway and Elevated Railroad is perishing of its own folly, but certain aspects of it still invite comment. Why did the chiefs of the Locomotive Engineers and the Street Railway Employees wait till the strike was beaten before they denounced it as irregular? If treason to the national organization had been successful, would it have been no longer treason? Chief Stone declared that the strike was "in direct violation of our law"—that is, the law of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers. But if that was true on Thursday afternoon, it was true on Tuesday morning; and a prompt and emphatic announcement of it then would have prevented much suffering. However, we must welcome, even if it comes late, Mr. Stone's declaration that "labor organizations must keep their agreements if they expect to succeed." This falls in with the statement of the Interborough Company that the men deliberately broke their word. They have got their punishment; and doubtless their crazy leaders will sink into the obscurity that yawns for the failures of organized labor. As for the management of the company, it deserves the thanks of the community for having withstood a peculiarly mad form of union tyranny with determination, and fought it with skill and vigor. It should firmly adhere to its announced purpose of retaining the employees who came to it in the emergency, and making the men who threw up their jobs insanely eat humble pie and wait their turn.

If James Wilson continues to serve as Secretary of Agriculture through the present Administration, his record of service in any Cabinet office will surpass all others, with but one exception, since the foundation of the Government. Even now, only two men have ever held a portfolio longer than he. Mr. Wilson is the only one of McKinley's original selections who is still in the Cabinet. He was appointed on March 5, 1897, and on March 5 rounded out his eighth year, thus equalling the terms of James Madison, who was Secretary of State from March 5, 1801, to March 4, 1809, when he became President, and Gideon Welles, who was Secretary of the Navy from March 5, 1861, to March 4, 1869. Henry Dearborn, whom Jefferson twice appointed Secretary of State, lacked about a month of completing his eight years. The two Cabinet officers with longer records are William H. Crawford and Albert Gallatin, who share with Mr. Wilson the honor of having been three times appointed. Crawford was made Secretary of the Treasury by Madison on October 22, 1816, and continued through both of Monroe's terms, making his total service about eight years and four months. Gallatin did not take office until two months and a half after Jefferson's inauguration, on May 14, 1801. Madison continued him in office throughout his first term, and did not appoint a successor until February 9, 1814, though during the year 1813, when Gallatin was abroad, the Secretary of the Navy performed his duties. Altogether, he held the office for about twelve years and nine months. Mr. Wilson could only equal that by being continued in the next Cabinet. Combining as he does the qualifications of a farmer and a politician, stranger things than that might happen should the next Administration be Republican.

No one could seriously have expected Mr. Balfour to be beaten on any of the critical votes taken in the debate on the Address. Then is the time of all others when party spirit and Government whips flog reluctant members into attending the House and voting. The majority of 42, in a division upon one of the aspects of the tariff controversy, on March 8, was only half the normal, but it shows that the Ministry cannot yet be turned out on a direct vote of want of confidence. Probably no Liberal expected that it could. The debates and the divisions have aimed, not at immediately defeating the Government, but at fur-

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ther discrediting it. This end has been attained: Mr. Balfour emerges distinctly weaker. But the real test will come in the routine work of the session. The Government's strength will be apt to be eaten away piecemeal. Dispirited followers cannot be kept in regular attendance; the Ministry may be outvoted on chance divisions; and although it has announced that it will not resign for that, it may easily find the work of necessary legislation so dragging and finally impossible that it will give up in disgust.

In the Berlin *Nation*, Count Albert Apponyi, the new President of the Hungarian Upper House, analyzes the result of the recent elections. The victory of the united Opposition was most sweeping in districts where intelligence and thrift are greatest. In Budapest itself, and in a few of the larger towns, the Government succeeded in obtaining a bare majority, mainly owing to the large vote of petty officials and their indirect influence. But in the Magyar districts the overwhelming majority (about 90 per cent.) voted for the Opposition, and so did the German peasants, with the exception of the Saxons of Transylvania. Nor were the appeals of the Government to the national sentiments of Slavs and Rumans more successful. The Slovaks of Northern Hungary clung faithfully to the Catholic People's party. The main issue—the integrity of Hungarian institutions—appealed to the "plain people" with irresistible force. "Powerful magnates were defeated in their districts by unknown, petty journalists and lawyers; some constituencies, long notorious for corruption, broke with their unsavory traditions, and penniless candidates triumphed over the heaviest money-bags." Numerically, the united Opposition consists of 166 members of the Independence party, 26 adherents of Andrássy, 23 members of the Catholic People's party, 11 followers of Bánffy, 10 Independents, and 9 Rumano-Serb Nationalists. These 245 votes were increased bby the supplementeary elections to abobut 250, as against the 161 votes for the Government.

Count Apponyi is not disposed to make light of the obstacles which the Opposition is certain to encounter in attempting to form a Cabinet. The majority is composed of fractions, some of which are unquestionably loyal to the *Ausgleich* of 1867, and Count Apponyi concedes to Tisza not a few followers among the Liberal party, in spite of Count Andrássy's nominal leadership. It is doubtless the knowledge of this weakness in the Opposition that has confirmed Francis Joseph in his determination to withstand the demands of the Independence party on the army question. Perhaps he recalls the famous "Wir können warten," which his Premier, Schmerling, opposed to Hungarian demands in the sixties; though Kossuth may retort that Deák, too, could "afford to wait," and that Schmerling was forced to yield in 1865.

It is said that the French Socialists will interpellate the Government concerning its action in permitting the Russian ships to stay so long in Madagascan waters. The occasion will doubtless be seized for a thorough ventilation of the whole question of the Franco-Russian alliance. Even before the last military disasters, influential leaders of public opinion in Paris had made bold to predict its early collapse. Of sympathy with the liberal movement in Russia, there has been no lack. The general protest against the massacres of January 22 led to the formation of a society calling itself "Les Amis du Peuple Russe," among the members of which are Anatole France, Georges Clémenceau, Senator Adolphe Carnot, the historians Seignobos and Langlois, the mathematician Painlevé, the painters J. P. Laurens and Carrière, and others of distinction. One of the objects of this society is "to give precise information as to what is going on in Russia, and to make the Russian people aware of the sympathy felt for it in its struggle for liberty." Great meetings of professors, students, and laboring men have been held, denouncing not only the Czar, but the Russian army for fighting against the people; and the Socialists have called for an alliance between French workingmen and those of all other countries in place of the Franco-Russian alliance. M. Anatole France, in the course of a recent address, said that he had asked M. Combes, the former Prime Minister, whether there really existed a hard-and-fast compact between France and Russia compelling the French Government, in certain eventualities, to aid her ally actively. M. Combes answered evasively, but M. France stated it as his opinion that no French Ministry would be capable of such folly.

The results of higher education in India and in Japan differ widely. The Bishop of Madras has lately called attention to its comparative failure in India. Instruction in Western science and literature is given in the English language, which the average student has only imperfectly mastered. The Indian student has always in mind either a place in the civil service or an opportunity to gain an advantage in the world of commerce and finance. He is satisfied to learn by rote that which his instructors are pleased to impart, for the Indian is capable of extraordinary feats of memory. In Japan, all is different. Though at the Imperial University the curriculum prescribed is in some respects inferior to that of the Indian colleges, instruction is given in the vernacular, and the Japanese graduate is equipped for work in any field to which his taste may direct him. In neither country is the education religious; but while in Japan the student is animated with a patriotic zeal to benefit his nation, in India patriotism is rare. The present condition of affairs in India, in spite of the universities act of 1904, is another of the examples afforded by history of the failure of education when divorced from some living and dominant sentiment. Alexandria, with its cosmopolitan life and interests and its scholarly atmosphere, studied the past, but made no substantial progress. It furnished a museum with literary monuments; its philosophy was eclecticism without originality. And now it is seen that not even the intelligence, wealth, and political power of England have made the Indian colleges successful, while the young men in Japan find in university education an opportunity for the advancement of themselves and their country.

The occupation of Mukden on March 10 was the fruit of the Japanese attack of February 23 on the Russian advanced fortifications, combined with irresistible flanking operations which made Kuropatkin's retreat the most panicky perhaps ever known in Russian military annals. The pursuit, too, did not flag till it was clear that the defeated army was first in the race for Tie Pass. At Tieling a breathing-space has been afforded for bringing order out of chaos, but a further retirement upon Harbin seems inevitable unless the present disaster prove a prelude to peace. The distance which the Russian force has been moved back by the latest Japanese engineering exploit (for we can hardly help likening it to a feat in transportation), is about equal to that which separates Liao-yang from Mukden. If Russia were still practically intact, and had no internal dissensions to menace both the replenishment of the army and the very existence of the Government, we might look upon Oyama's successes as Pyrrhic victories. Just what they have cost him, what Kuropatkin, in lives lost, or what was the respective strength of their two vast armies, no one knows. The talk of cessation of hostilities is, of course, revived, all the more because the Paris bankers are withholding the Russian loan. We place no confidence in reports of the intended exaction of an indemnity, apart from territorial concessions. Indemnity should come from the party which began the war, as in the case of France and Germany. Russia is not yet so impoverished as to pay cash for her folly and bad faith over and above what poetic justice has exacted of her already.

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THE SAN DOMINGO INTRIGUE.

From the Senate amendments to the San Domingo treaty, it is evident that the President will scarcely know his own baby when it is returned to him by the Senate nurses. Besides cutting out all of his Monroe metaphysics, the Senators have inserted precautionary clauses directly in the face of some of his proposals. The most important of these safeguards relates to the liquidation of foreign claims against San Domingo. There was undoubted peril in the President's plan to take the whole matter jauntily into his own hands. As the *Economiste Français* pointed out, Mr. Roosevelt was headed straight for embroilment with foreign countries. But the Senate has now checked him. It has practically adopted the scheme of joint action, in this matter of foreign debts, which the President rejected out of hand. To bring out the difference, we put Mr. Roosevelt's statement of his own proposal, in his second and meeker message, alongside the Senate's wise amendment:

THE SAFE PRESIDENT.	THE WARY SENATE.
"Many of the debts alleged to be due from Santo Domingo to outside creditors unquestionably on their face represent far more money than ever was actually given Santo Domingo. The proposed treaty provides for a process by which impartial experts will determine what debts are valid and what are in whole or in part invalid, and will apportion accordingly the surplus revenue available for the payment of the debts. This treaty offers the only method for preventing the collection of fraudulent debts, whether owed to Americans or to citizens of other nations."	"The United States is not bound by this treaty to consider or decide on any claim presented to it for adjudication, adjustment, or settlement until the Government of which the claimant is a citizen or subject has given its consent that the decision thereof by the United States, its agents, or officers thereunto duly empowered shall be accepted as final and conclusive."

These transformations find their counterpart in the relatively sober second thought of the President himself. If his latest message on the San Domingo treaty were to be put in parallel columns with that of February 16, some interesting contrasts would emerge. At the earliest date, he was all adrip with the Monroe Doctrine. What it forbade and what it commanded was the chief burden of his song. He wound up his former message, in fact, with the assertion that the disposition of the treaty would afford "a practical test of the efficiency of the United States Government in maintaining the Monroe Doctrine." Did we or did we not wish to make Monroe turn in his grave? But in the following message, the tomb of Monroe was not once invaded. The Doctrine was left mute and inglorious. All came down to a mere proceeding in bankruptcy. Moreover, the Senate was informed that, if the treaty fails, "foreign nations will be left to collect the debts due their citizens as they see fit, provided, of course, there is no permanent occupancy of Dominican territory." Yet on February 16, such occupancy was "the *only* way in which the Powers in question can collect *any* debts"; and that way the United States "cannot see."

We pass to Secretary Hay's repeated attempts to "set at rest" the "misleading and harmful reports concerning the San Domingo protocol," which betray a Department ill at ease. They do not clear up, but deepen the mystery. The real way to dispel it is to publish all the correspondence—including the orders to Commander Dillingham through the Navy Department, as well as those to Minister Dawson from the Department of State. But this simple step Secretary Hay has not taken. The Department is reported to hold that, "as an invariable rule," it "draws the line against the publication of preliminary correspondence." Waiving for the moment the question what the real precedents are, consider the exact nature of the difficulty which is causing Mr. Hay so much vexation. First is the fact of a protocol actually signed at Santo Domingo on January 20 by our naval and diplomatic representatives, which had nowhere within its four corners a hint that it required ratification by the Senate, and which was to go into effect in ten days—a period obviously shutting out action by the Senate. Nor did this strange proceeding burst upon the country unannounced. The Washington correspondent of the *Tribune* had fully and, as he alleged both before and after the event, "authoritatively" set forth what was to occur. The "arrangement," he explained, "has none of the attributes of a treaty, and will not require ratification by the Senate." Even on January 21, after the protocol had been signed, this correspondent, speaking in the name of "officials of the State Department," said that when once the document had been received and examined, "Senators may advise the President to put it in treaty form, *but that course is not now contemplated.*" But now the Secretary states that "no purpose of putting the agreement into practical operation without submitting it to the Senate for approval was ever entertained, considered, or discussed." To repeat the question in "Figaro," "Who is deceived here?" It is the Senate's business to find out and let the country know. Unless the matter is probed to the last dispatch, the most damaging suspicions will stay afloat. It will be intimated that the President went ahead with the aid of the Navy Department, possibly assisted by the too effusive "Loomis, Acting" (who, rumor now says, is to be provided for somewhere east of Suez—at any rate, outside the State Department), and got into an indefensible position from which Mr. Hay is doing his best to extricate him.

Precedents can, of course, be quoted on both sides, as relates to the American practice of making diplomatic correspondence public. Washington refused to send to the House the instructions leading up to the Jay treaty of 1795, but this was chiefly because the House had no business in that galley, not being a part of the treaty-making power. Besides, the Jay treaty had already been ratified by the Senate. In later years, certainly, the rule has been to furnish all the correspondence, even of that "preliminary" kind which the Department of State now thinks it would be against tradition to publish. The correspondence going with the Treaty of Paris, for example, made a stout volume. But the case nearest in point is the first San Domingo scandal, when President Grant tried in vain to force through the annexation treaty of 1869. It was precisely the publication of the correspondence, covering Babcock's extraordinary dispatches and the illegal orders of Robeson, the Secretary of the Navy, which then made ratification of the treaty impossible. Senator Sumner had personally had access to the incriminating records before he made his first speech against it, but it was only when, on his motion, the entire correspondence was sent to Congress that the country saw what a lawless course had been pursued by the Administration. Then, as now, there was a Dominican President in straits. Baez appealed to Grant much as Morales has appealed to Roosevelt. He was kept in power a year or more, purely by the assistance of the American navy. How do we know that Morales is not enjoying that favor now? Baez was driven from office soon after the treaty failed. Morales will almost certainly fall in like manner, unless we prop him up on bayonets. The San Domingo affair was one of the worst blunders in all of President Grant's Administration. His predictions of what would occur if we did not take that hornet's nest into our parlor, were almost as sweeping as Roosevelt's, yet have remained ludicrously unfulfilled. But Grant at least let the people see what he was doing. It is reserved for the frankest of all our Presidents to perceive that it would not be good for us to know the whole truth.

It may be said that, the original protocol having been withdrawn in confusion, none of these considerations apply to the pending treaty. But the two are inextricably mixed up. All that throws light on the protocol will also illuminate the treaty. It will show the animus of both parties to the negotiation. What did Morales first ask? What promises did he get? What aid and comfort, beyond the signing of an unauthorized treaty so as to "avert disorder," have our naval officers given him? All these and many more pertinent questions the Senate should insist upon having squarely answered. Until they

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are, it should not ratify the treaty, even with some of its fangs drawn by amendment. Moreover, the country is entitled to the information. The treaty has been published. The President's messages about it have been given to the press. Now let us have the whole thing. Give us the orders of Mr. Morton, so as to assure us that the man who, as Vice-President of the Atchison, openly snapped his fingers at the Interstate Commerce law, has not, as Secretary of the Navy, been outdoing his unhappy predecessor, Robeson, in disregard of international law. Having made a beginning of taking the public into its confidence, the Administration should be made to go all the way. The President has put his hand to publicity, and knows what is written of those who look back.

THE HARD ROAD TO ECONOMY.

The late Congress was never out of the shadow of an impending deficit. The Speaker coined homely phrases from time to time to express the fact that revenues and expenditures were not likely to meet, while other sagacious members discoursed in more classic language on the same unfortunate condition. For the current fiscal year, the first for which the Fifty-eighth Congress made provision, the deficiency is now estimated as at least $18,000,000. Every one agreed, when the supply bills for 1906 were taken up, that the alternatives were squarely presented of increasing the revenue or cutting down expenses. The Ways and Means Committee, however, did nothing in the former direction; as for the second, members of both parties on the appropriation committees expressed the view that when they had scaled down every item to the lowest reasonable figure, they had done their duty. However big the deficit might be, the responsibility was on the leaders who refused to provide more revenue.

It is seldom that the tabular history of appropriations printed at the close of a session shows so plainly the effort made to keep down expenditures. The ways of saving money are very simple. Let the departments be instructed to pare down their estimates to the lowest possible figure. Let the House committees cut them still smaller. Let the leaders firmly repress the desire of members to swell the total of the bills after they are reported. Let the Senate use sparingly its power of tacking on new items, and, finally, let the representatives of the House in conference take a firm stand against all Senatorial extravagance.

Every one of these precautions was followed with unusual fidelity this year. The Departmental estimates were kept down so efficiently that they were only about nine million dollars above those of the year before. The House committees took off about fourteen millions more before reporting the bills. Then the House itself, which in the past few years had acquired the dangerous habit of adding to appropriation bills after they were reported, inserting thus $1,270,569 last year, went back to old precedents this time, and even cut out items aggregating $329,937 which its committees were willing to appropriate. Then the Senate committees contented themselves with adding but $10,133,776.89 to the bills—an extremely moderate amount, less than half the corresponding additions a year ago, and many millions less than in the years preceding. More noteworthy still, the Senate, which, as a body, owing to the power which the individual Senator may exercise, is almost always more liberal than its committees, added only $215,803 after the bills were reported. In the corresponding short session of the Fifty-seventh Congress, its additions of this sort were $3,804,025.

Most remarkable of all, when the various bills emerged from conference, more than half of the Senate's additions had been stricken out. For every dollar the Senate added to the appropriations, only a little more than 44 cents was left in the bill as it went to the President for signature. As it is without precedent in recent years for the House to come nearer than the Senate to getting its way as to the total of appropriations, the corresponding figures for other years are worth citing. A year ago, for every dollar the Senate added, 67 cents was in the bill as it became law. In the session of 1902-1903, under Speaker Henderson, the House consented to 72 cents in every dollar of Senate amendments; in 1901-2, it yielded on 86 cents, and in 1899-1900 87 cents. Mr. Cannon may be proud of his success in making the House assert itself in these appropriation conferences. Six of the thirteen supply bills are smaller than those of a year ago.

Thus it seems that Congress did everything that a Congress should do when anxious to economize. The only trouble was that, despite these pains, the total came out $37,306,539.63 larger than it ever was before. Although the regular supply bills are not party measures, it is the custom for the chairmen of the appropriations committees in House and Senate, and the ranking minority members, to present an analysis of the appropriations and their meaning. This year Mr. Livingston of Georgia, subtracting the estimated revenues for next year, $725,590,515, from the total of appropriations, $818,478,914, obtained "a difference of $92,888,399, a broad enough expanse between the buckle of expenditures and the tongue of revenues to startle the plain and common people who bear the burdens of taxation." Chairman Hemenway, more agile in the use of figures, deducted first the deficiency bills and all of the "permanent annual appropriations" except those to be applied to the ordinary expenses of conducting the Government during the fiscal year 1906, and thus obtained a surplus of $28,542,410.

But, for all these differences of interpretation, the figures themselves are for any one to study. They show, at least, of how little avail the ordinary measures of economy are when opposed to projects undertaken on a grand scale. It is almost impossible to abandon a line of policy once entered upon. All the supply bills, as we should naturally expect, are larger than they were ten years ago, but they have not grown at the same rate. In the four years of Mr. Cleveland, the Army, Navy, and Fortification bills included but a little more than 10 per cent. of the total money appropriated; Congress during half of that time being Republican. In the four years 1903 to 1906, with Mr. Roosevelt as President, those three items make up 22 per cent. of the total. That is, of course, at the expense of peaceful and domestic activities. For agriculture 82 per cent. more has been appropriated between 1903 and 1906 than between 1893 and 1896, but this makes a niggardly showing beside the 242 per cent. increase in provision for warlike purposes. And while, in the four years of Roosevelt, 46 per cent. more money has been appropriated for rivers and harbors than in Cleveland's four years, this is not even commensurate with the general increase, which was 56 per cent. It is plain enough that it is the "big stick" policy which is responsible for this abnormal increase of expenses in ten years. And if such a policy is followed out when the Government can hardly make both ends meet, the citizen may well ask what would happen if we had a surplus.

THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF AND HIS MEN.

The Japanese have won at Mukden the most important and, in its effect, the most far-reaching of their successive victories by land and sea within the last thirteen months. Whatever else results, Kuropatkin's military reputation is now badly shattered. If we review the development of the land campaign since last May, the conclusion that it has lacked foresight, a vigorous initiative, and a well-thought-out plan, is inevitable. Writing in the Berlin *Tageblatt*, Col. Gädke of the German army, who was with Kuropatkin until December last and enjoyed unusual opportunities for observation, declared early in February that the one hope of Russian success lay in a change of commanders. There is no worse leader, he declared, than the leader who does not dare. Such attempts at assuming the offensive as Kuropatkin made were undertaken so cautiously and hesitantly as to invite defeat, although, according to Col.

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Gädke's estimate, the Russians had fully 75,000 more men than their enemy on February 1. It will be remembered that Gen. Gripenberg's charges against Kuropatkin were quite in line with this criticism. At the hour of that officer's success Kuropatkin frustrated his achievement by a failure to forward some promised reserves, because of a groundless fear that to do so might seriously weaken his line at a point which was hardly threatened.

The general who does not risk a complete defeat is little likely to win a complete victory. Kuropatkin seems never to have been able to forget the necessity of protecting the Mantchurian railway. In the battles about Liaoyang and Mukden his soldiers saw him accept battle by preparing to retreat. Construction of fortifications in the rear to serve as havens of safety have bustled the General quite as much as plans for the checkmating of his foe. The policy of the Moscow campaign, of falling back before a superior enemy, may have had its justification at the outset of the Mantchurian hostilities. Col. Gädke was one of those who believed so at that time. But, as the summer passed and the Russian army gradually outgrew its adversary, Kuropatkin could not wholly shake off the policy of delay and of striking only when he felt sure that a repulse would not seriously injure the army. Hence the repulse, all but counted on, invariably came. Not once did Kuropatkin attack all along the line. It was always, after October, a steady pounding at the Japanese left wing and never with sufficient numbers, for the reason that Oyama, by repeatedly demonstrating in force on the Russian right and centre, accomplished his object of holding sufficient Russians opposite to him to prevent Kuropatkin's obtaining the desired numerical superiority on his (Oyama's) left. Furthermore, according to Gen. Gripenberg, Kuropatkin made the additional blunder in the battle of Sandipu, at the end of January, of prescribing in advance definite limits for the forward movement, beyond which his subordinate could not go. This was to cripple Gripenberg before he even encountered the enemy.

Observers, alike on the spot and at a distance, are agreed that the Czar's generalissimo has wholly lacked decision and vigor, with the pitiless will to succeed at any cost so characteristic of the Japanese generals. Personally brave and doubtless exceptionally fitted to be the right hand of a Skobeleff, Kuropatkin naturally suggests comparison with McClellan, whose chief concern was always the exact numerical superiority of his foe. Like him, Kuropatkin is a remarkable organizer, a man of talent and industry. But the Russian has never learned to stick to the offensive at all costs, to forget the possibility of a defeat, to get out of his men their last atom of strength. Honest and devoted, he has wasted precious time in striving to oversee the location of every division, every brigade, and even every regiment, in marked contrast to Kuroki and Oyama, who have lived and fought close to field-telegraph instruments, and put the responsibility for details on others. Finally, the successful general must have a certain gift for divining his adversaries' plans, and in this Kuropatkin would appear to be totally deficient.

As for Oyama, he has demonstrated that it is still strategy which counts, even with the vastly increased forces of modern warfare, and with a battlefront of ninety miles. He has achieved success by hazarding defeat. With Eastern stoicism and fatalism, he has thrown away regiment after regiment against the Russian centre entrenched behind barricades and natural obstructions which all the eagerness of his men to die could not reduce by front attack. Putiloff Hill was abandoned only when Nogi and Kuroki scored on the flanks. Not until the former struck home did Kuropatkin realize where the massing of the Japanese forces was, and then it was too late. His counter attacks failed as completely as had his more elaborate assuming of the offensive.

But if Kuropatkin has suffered a terrible defeat, the individual Russian soldier has once more triumphed; has once more shown himself one who cannot be demoralized even when retreating before a victorious foe, under the most trying conditions in warfare. It is to this steadfastness that Kuropatkin owes his escape with the bulk of his army to Tie Pass, quite as much as to the readiness of his massed artillery to sacrifice itself in order that the remainder of the force might make its way northward. What European troops would have achieved this feat after having been steadily beaten back for ten months in every encounter with their enemy? Gen. von Boguslawsky, perhaps the foremost German military writer, answers this question by saying emphatically that no other soldiers could take such a beating and still keep together.

> "Deprived of their officers, a body of Russian soldiers may degenerate into a helpless, inert mass, and be slaughtered by means of their very cohesiveness, but they will never take a panic; their history affords none of those examples in which a mass of crazy fugitives flies with a cry of 'Sauve qui peut' from a danger conjured up by the imagination, and exaggerated and inflamed by the senseless cries of others."

Thus wrote Gen. Francis V. Greene in his 'Army Life in Russia' as a result of his observations as United States military attaché in the Russian winter campaign of 1877-8, against the Turks. He added that the Russian soldier's patience is boundless, his endurance and good humor under hardship phenomenal, and gave his opinion "that he is probably the steadiest of all soldiers under defeat and adversity."

Colonel Gädke in the main confirms General Greene. But whereas the American observer noticed that the Russians went into action enthusiastically, Col. Gädke was astonished to see how unwillingly one battalion of old reserve men gave battle on October 16. After that time he observed a strengthening of the bonds of discipline, and was particularly pleased with the spirit of the artillerymen and pioneers. He, too, was amazed at the power of the Russian soldier in a frontal attack, and his obstinate refusal to retreat from the place assigned to him. For his conduct on the retreat the Prussian critic, like the American, has only the highest praise, and he also attributes it to the Russian's "instinct for masses." The Russian soldier, he finds, is still willing to give everything that there is in him in the way of strength and endurance. But while Skobeleff and his chief subordinate knew how to get the last ounce out of him, the generals of to-day have evidently no such knowledge. To them and to the regimental officers is due the weak character of the offensive movements of the Russians. To Gädke they seemed more like a mere "feeling" of the enemy instead of an attempt to drive an attack home at any cost save defeat.

Unlike Gen. Greene, Col. Gädke noticed a great deal of straggling. It generally took nine men to remove one wounded soldier, and the carriers were exceedingly slow in returning to the firing line. Not more than 50 per cent. of the available rifles were on the firing line in the battles which Gädke witnessed. While at Shipka Pass there were few stragglers and not a single case of insubordination, there seems to be now but little appreciation of the value of a provost guard. As for the work of the commissary department, the *Tageblatt's* correspondent found that the old sins of the Russian administration were less evident in this war than in previous ones. He attributed the constant begging of the stray soldiers he met more to their poor pay than to any other cause. Frederick the Great's soldiers once told him, at the battle of Kolin, that they "had fought enough to-day for seven groschen" (about eighteen cents). The poor Russian victim of the lust for empire receives in 1905 only three kopecks, *or less than two cents a day.* It is for this price that he is asked to sell his life. Is it any wonder that he sells parts of his equipment, begs of every one he meets, and occasionally forgets the difference between mine and thine?

THE WHISTLER EXHIBITION.

LONDON, February 28, 1905.

The Whistler Memorial Exhibition, organized by the International Society of Sculptors, Painters, and Gravers, has

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opened at the New Gallery with every appropriate ceremony and distinction. M. Rodin, Whistler's successor as president of the Society, has come specially from Paris to preside on the occasion, and he has been accompanied by M. Armand Dayot, Inspector of the Fine Arts, officially sent by the French Government; M. Bénédite of the Luxembourg, and several eminent French artists. A banquet has been given at which foreign ambassadors—the Ambassador of the United States among them—as well as Englishmen of rank and office and of note in art and science and letters, have listened to or joined in the eulogy of Whistler. The show has been formally declared open by M. Rodin before one of the most distinguished audiences ever assembled in London, and the leading papers have declared in solemn editorials that the opening will be remembered as "one of the most important events in the history of Art." The critics have been as eager to praise as they were once to sneer, and the public has rushed in its thousands—and rushed to admire, not to laugh. In a word, never before has the whirligig of time brought about its revenge more thoroughly. And it is but right that Whistler's greatest triumph as yet should be in the country which, of all others, failed most signally to appreciate and honor him while he lived.

The exhibition is worthy of the attention it is attracting. Under present circumstances, a finer and more representative collection of Whistlers could not be got together. It is true that a few of the masterpieces shown at Boston have not been lent, that a few owners of Whistlers —Mr. Freer, Mr. Vanderbilt, Mr. Canfield in America, Mr. Studd and Whistler's executrix in England—have refused to have anything to do with the exhibition. This means, of course, that the "Princesse du Pays de Porcelaine," "The "Thames in Ice," "Bognor," some of the nocturnes, the portraits of Mr. Vanderbilt and of Whistler himself, the "Little White Girl," the "Rosa Corder," are missing. I believe that some of the pictures denied to London are to be in Paris, where, however, even though the coming show (in May) is to be divided between the Luxembourg and the École des Beaux-Arts, there is hardly as much space as at the New Gallery for a fine display. And, after all, if a few things of importance have not been secured for London, a great many more have.

It will give some idea of the size and scope of the exhibition now open if I say that, while in Boston there were catalogued 184 oil paintings, water-colors, pastels and drawings, 234 etchings, and 80 lithographs, in London the catalogue records 192 paintings, water-colors, pastels, and drawings (and this number represents about 250 different works, as in certain cases several are framed together), 292 etchings, and 153 lithographs. In point of quality, I think the mere possession of the "Mother" and the "Carlyle" casts the balance in favor of London. It is the more remarkable that such fine results should have been obtained as the International Society has neither the official standing nor the wealth —indeed it has no money at all—of the Royal Academy. Its artistic influence, however, has been sufficient to induce the King to lend his etchings from Windsor, and collectors far and wide—Mr. Theobald, Mr. Howard Mansfield, Mr. Kennedy, Mr. Frederick Keppel—to part with some of their rarest for the time; it has been sufficient to prevail upon the French Government to send the portrait of the "Mother" from the Luxembourg, and to obtain the "Carlyle" from the Glasgow Corporation, the "Sarasate" from the Carnegie gallery in Pittsburgh, the "Little Rose of Lyme Regis" and the "Mastersmith" from the Boston Museum, the "Southampton Water" from the Chicago Art Institute; it has been sufficient to persuade individual owners to contribute pictures as famous as "The Fur Jacket," "Miss Alexander," "The White Girl," "Mrs. Huth," "F. R. Leyland, Esq.," "M. Théodore Duret," "Irving, as Philip of Spain," "At the Piano," "Symphony in White, No. 3," and a beautiful series of nocturnes and marines.

To those whose knowledge of Whistler is slight, nothing in the exhibition will seem so amazing as the proof it gives of his talent for hard work and his great productiveness—a productiveness in which he has been equalled really only by the masters of the Renaissance (who were to him the true masters), and surpassed not even by them. Only a few months ago Sir Edward Poynter, president of the Royal Academy, was publicly sighing over him as the Idle Apprentice, who might have accomplished great things had he but cultivated the virtue of industry. It is extraordinary what this idle weakling managed to accomplish just the same. Had he been an industrious apprentice and a giant of strength, according to his critics' strenuous standards, I do not see how he could have been expected to accomplish much more. At the New Gallery, the central hall, the largest room, and the balcony are filled with his etchings, lithographs, and drawings; the two other rooms are hung with his paintings, though, as I have said, the collection is not complete. Signs of idling or of feebleness it would be hard to discover.

It adds to the interest that the pictures should include some of Whistler's very earliest, painted in his student days, before he had found himself, or while he was finding himself. I pass over the youthful efforts at illustration—one of Dickens, unexpectedly enough—for these are of value chiefly as curiosities. But there is a copy by him of a Boucher at the Louvre, which, though without a trace of the Whistler we know, is important as an example of the careful student work of which he was capable at the time when, we have been assured, he was busy idling. It is a picture, moreover, that will remind those who knew Whistler intimately of his wonderful stories of his own adventures as a copyist in the Louvre. It has been lent by Mr. Winans, so that there can be no question of its genuineness. The first painting he ever exhibited is also here, "La Mère Gérard," presented by him almost half a century ago to Mr. Swinburne, who now lends it. It is a small portrait of the old woman of whom he was making the well-known etchings at this period; and as she sits there, in white cap and sombre black, holding a flower, it is easy to fancy the reproaches it must have met from the fiery young fellow-student filled with disdain for a picture which, in their own words, "sentait du Louvre"—for the influence of days spent among the old masters is unmistakable in it. But there is not the least bit of that sort of suggestion of the Louvre in the works that followed almost at once. "La Mère Gérard" was scarcely finished when Whistler started the "Piano Picture," so beautiful in tone and design; and then, in the early sixties, with "The Blue Wave," "The Coast of Brittany," "Old Westminster Bridge," he was preparing the way for the later nocturnes and marines. These three pictures, which explain so much in the history of Whistler's development, are now in the New Gallery, as they were also in Boston. Probably the only modern artist who at the beginning of his career influenced him was Courbet, and two of the three were painted when he was working with Courbet on the French coast. There is a great deal of Courbet's vigorous handling and unflinching respect for realism in the treatment of the sky, and the rocks along the shore, and the wide stretch of deep blue sea. And the painter's attitude towards Nature and his method were the same when, instead of the French coast, he was studying the Thames as it flows through London. His rendering of Westminster Bridge in the building is full of the infinite detail critics used to say that Whistler shirked simply because he could not draw it. No one can look at this canvas—cracked, I regret to say, and bearing too soon the traces of time—and ever again maintain that Whistler had no powers of observation, no sound draughtsmanship. Beside it, Mathew Maris, greatest realist of the same kind, vanishes, and Pre-Raphaelite niggling is exposed in all its inconsequence.

It was because Whistler could produce pictures like these early performances, that he was able to paint the later masterpieces in which his observation was concerned with more sensitive effects, and the beauty he sought was more elusive. I do not know, really, if, after this first group of pictures, to which "The White Girl" belongs—a disappointment unless its date and its history are recalled—one can speak accurately of development in Whistler. It seems as if, with them, he was testing his knowledge of beauty and of technique both, and, once sure of himself, he emerged the master he remained; as if ever afterwards there was no question of degree in the quality of his work, but only one of difference. There were times when strong color and intricate pattern pleased him most, and the "Princesse du Pays de Porcelaine," the "Lange Leizen," the "Golden Screen," and the other Japanese-inspired arrangements were the result; times when he was enthralled by the mystery of night, which, with its splendors of sudden light and deep, impenetrable shadows, can dignify even the vulgarities and tawdriness of town life—and the Cremorne series was created; times when it was the coming of night or day that worked the miracle and held him spellbound, and he revealed to the world the hitherto unseen, undreamed of loveliness of London or of Valparaiso; times when the mystery was in the expression of a human face, the miracle in the grace of a human form, and he gave us the wonderful portraits which I wish were to remain in one collection forever, like the portraits at Madrid—which I should like to see some day added to the gift just made to the nation, which, indeed, without some such addition, will defeat its own object. Whistler's mo-

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tives varied, but his end was always the same—always that which he himself has called "the painter's poetry"; and, after his first few preliminary experiments, his methods were always entirely his own. Consistently, he practised the dogma he proclaimed and showed in his own work, that pictures were to be looked at, not through; were to be a pleasure in themselves.

All these phases are represented at the New Gallery except the phase when he was preoccupied with brilliant color and intricate pattern, his Japanese period, as it has been "labelled." A decorative panel done, it is said, for South Kensington Museum, but never finished, is here, and in the grouping of the three nudes—one with a parasol, one bending over a blossoming plant—there is the Japanese feeling that animates the three or four better-known pictures. But the panel is scarcely one of his successes, and it is no doubt because he was unsatisfied with it that he left it as it is. There is, however, a most marvellous series of the nocturnes: both the Valparaisos, which seem still greater marvels of perfect color every time one sees them; the "Battersea—Dawn," the "Southampton Water," the "Blue and Silver" on the Thames near Westminster, and the "Blue and Green" on the Thames near Chelsea; the "Old Battersea Bridge," gray, with the little red roofs that tell so vividly in it; a "Blue and Silver" I never have seen before, the pale-blue haunting vision of night framed in a high pier of the old Battersea Bridge, one of the three pictures jeered at in the memorable trial. No one ever saw the beauty of night until Whistler came, though Japanese artists had already been seeking it, may even have given him the clue they failed to grasp themselves. These few pictures alone would have won for him immortality. And they are supplemented by four or five of the Cremorne subjects—one, "The Falling Rocket," produced in evidence at that same trial which will make Ruskin's name remembered long after the world has ceased to read his books.

The group of portraits is as fine, as representative. It seems unnecessary just now to describe paintings already so often described. A few of the less well known are the strange, Holbein-like "Mrs. Huth," the exquisite rendering of lace at throat and wrists breaking its sombre severity, a picture I remember writing about in the *Nation* when it was at Edinburgh last winter; the no less severe and sombre "F. R. Leyland, Esq.," in evening dress, as romantic a figure as any of Velasquez's courtiers or Van Dyck's; the "M. Théodore Duret," carrying his rose-tinted domino serenely and gaily, lighter in scheme, more robust in handling than most of the others; the "Miss Mary Agnes Alexander," overshadowed by the portrait of her sister; the "Miss Kinsella," which I referred to in writing of last year's Salon, lovely ghost of the lovely creature who passed across the canvas before Whistler (ever seeking greater perfection) scraped it down and then had not time to repaint before death overtook him. But the wonder is to see all these great portraits now together, to have the rare chance for comparison. It was part of Whistler's genius that he could repeat the same color scheme, the same arrangement even, and never incur the charge of monotony. The "Mother" and the "Carlyle" hang opposite each other; and when you turn from one to the other, it is to be struck not by the points of similarity in pose and background, but by the infinite variety in the painter's manner of using practically the same arrangement to express the character of the peaceful old lady, tranquil and at rest, and of the rugged old philosopher, tragic and sad. And what difference in the blacks of the "Mrs. Huth" and the "F. R. Leyland, Esq.," in those of the "Sarasate" and the impressive "Irving," the darks here lightened by the gold trimmings and silver slashings and tights. And how that gold is put in! Take again the contrast between the working-out of the harmony of grays in the "Miss Alexander" and in the treatment of the harmony of brown in "The Fur Jacket." There is no straining here to make every canvas convey a meaning, or preach a sermon, or bear a moral. But you come away from the exhibition with a more vivid impression of variety than you can get from all the labored didacticisms of Watts now at the Academy.

I have said nothing of the "Symphony in White, No. 3"; nothing of the "Little Rose of Lyme Regis," and the "Master-smith," and "Lillie in our Alley"; nothing of the little portraits and the little shops; nothing of the water-colors (among them, the dainty, exquisite "Convalescent"); nothing of the pastels, tender, luminous notes of Venetian palaces and Venetian lagoons, Tanagra-like studies of beautiful women, and graceful draperies. I have not as much as touched upon the prints, which must wait for another article. But where everything is of importance, it is impossible to do more than give a general idea of the collection.

N. N.

A CHAMBERLAIN OF NAPOLEON.—I.

PARIS, February 27, 1905.

The 'Memoirs of the Count de Rambuteau' will rank among the most important contributions to the history of the first half of the nineteenth century. They have just been edited by his grandson, the present Count. I will say at once that they have the great merit of being real personal recollections. The author does not lose himself in generalities, nor indulge in theoretical considerations; he is not a philosopher, but he is an excellent and truthful observer—he speaks only of what he has seen; and this realistic character of the Memoirs, written during the most dramatic periods of French history, gives them real authority.

The Count de Rambuteau was born of an old family of Burgundy. His father, after having served in the army, lived long at the court at Versailles, like his uncle, the Chevalier, who retired in his old age to the convent of La Trappe. The young Philibert de Rambuteau was born in 1781. When the Revolution broke out, his father would not emigrate; he was imprisoned at Mâcon, and owed his life only to the revolution of Thermidor. The son witnessed the many horrors which took place at Lyons during the Terror. He was accepted as a pupil at the Polytechnic School, which had been founded by the Convention, but he never entered it, and his parents preferred that he should lead a civil life. His mother again hindered him from entering the army after Marengo. He married the daughter of the brilliant and charming Louis de Narbonne, one of the last roués of the old régime. Narbonne became one of the favorites of Napoleon, who used him as an able diplomat, accustomed to all the ways of the European courts. He procured for his son-in-law, after Wagram, the place of chamberlain to the Emperor. This court service was an amusement for a young man, and introduced him into Napoleon's familiarity.

The first winter of his employment as chamberlain was very brilliant. Four or five times a week the Emperor spent the evening at the house of the Princess Pauline, his sister. In one of the masked balls given there, "the Emperor was disguised as a negro, and marched before the quadrille blowing a horn. The two queens of the quadrille, Madame de Bassano and Madame de Barrel, shone with diamonds. I was myself the partner of Madame Pellapra, for whom I had ordered a costume of a Mâconnese peasant girl; the Emperor was greatly struck by her extraordinary beauty." Rambuteau had his part in all the ceremonies of the marriage with Marie-Louise.

"I saw," he says, "her reception under the Arc de Triomphe de l'Étoile, represented in wood and hangings as it exists to-day (and by a curious coincidence, thirty years later, in my capacity as Prefect of the Seine, I passed under this same arch, which recalled to me so many memories, when conducting the body of the Emperor from Courbevoie to the Invalides). In the chapel it was my duty to seat the cardinals. Thirty-four chairs had been provided; only twenty-nine cardinals came. I had the empty chairs removed, but the first thing the Emperor did was to count the seats. He called me and asked if nobody was absent; I was obliged to tell him the number. The same day, in the evening, the five absent cardinals received orders to present themselves before him and to bring back their insignia. They were called the black cardinals."

Rambuteau was present at the famous ball of Prince Schwarzenberg, the Austrian Ambassador, when the ballroom took fire. The Emperor was able to convey the Empress safely to the garden. The Princess Schwarzenberg was already there, when, thinking of her daughter, she returned to the ballroom and was crushed by the fall of a lustre. Rambuteau attended the Emperor twice a week to the Conseil d'État, and took a lively interest in the sittings, where the new legislation was prepared.

"It was a great school of government, to which I owed all I was to be afterwards. I learned there to enter into the spirit of affairs. . . . M. X., a man of great learning, wanted one day to be eloquent. The Emperor, who did not like phrases, let him speak a little while, and then made a sign to the arch-chancellor. 'Sir,' said Cambacérès, 'we are here, not at the Academy; we are business men; we have not to examine isolated questions. . . . Each of our acts is a link in a great chain; it ought to be united to what precedes and to what follows. The rest is so much lost time.' "

Before entering on the campaign of 1813 Napoleon replaced many old prefects by young ones. He sent Rambuteau, who had a great disposition for administrative functions and did not much like the court service, to the new department of the Simplon, recently annexed, and which was a

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part of Valais. The Simplon seemed very distant at that time—Sion, the chief town of the department, was almost a village; but Rambuteau did not hesitate, and entered upon his functions with much ardor. He visited on horseback all the villages of the department. In the autumn of 1813 he found himself isolated by the movements of the troops; after the disaster at Leipzig some Austrian regiments rushed in disorder into the valley of the Rhone. At the head of 300 Frenchmen, custom-house agents, gendarmes, and functionaries, Rambuteau left Martigny on Christmas Day in the direction of Chamonix by the mountain; he entered Savoy, and so presently reached Bourg and Mâcon. He was much disappointed. "I expected," he says, "to find France bristling with bayonets, and I found prefects who were packing their trunks." A decree of January, 1814, made him prefect of the Loire. He made great efforts to help Marshal Augereau, who was charged with the defence of Lyons; and when the marshal evacuated Lyons and plunged into Dauphiny, Rambuteau, who would not yet despair, retired to Roanne, entrenched himself with a few soldiers, and never consented to treat till he received the news of the capitulation of Paris and the abdication of Napoleon.

Louis XVIII. had near him the Abbé de Montesquiou, who had been his correspondent during the whole period of the emigration. Montesquiou was appointed Minister of the Interior. By marriage, Rambuteau was his nephew, and the Abbé de Montesquiou offered him first a place in the Garde-du-Corps, which he refused, and maintained him as prefect. Rambuteau's first interview with the Duchesse d'Angoulême, the surviving daughter of Louis XVI. and of Marie-Antoinette, is worth noticing. It is not to be wondered at, if, after all she had gone through, she had many apprehensions, and was not well disposed towards those who had been connected in any way with the Revolutionary or Imperial period. "I started from Roanne," writes Rambuteau, "where I had just received the Dowager Duchess of Orléans [the wife of Philippe Égalité and mother of Louis-Philippe], who had charged me to solicit an audience for herself, without concealing the embarrassment and uneasiness which this interview would cause her." Rambuteau asked at Vichy for a private audience, on the strength of an acquaintance which had existed between the Duchesse d'Angoulême and his own grandmother, the Duchess of Narbonne. He was received by the Princess, whom he found, "if not handsome, noble and imposing." He explained his situation to her:

"For three centuries my ancestors served your family; some of them died on the battlefield. I was imprisoned with my parents. Later, I engaged myself to the chief of my country, in the time of his victories. I was faithful to him in his reverses, and I defended the post confided to me to the last moment. If I did wrong, I am ready to expiate my error in retirement."

The Duchess urged him to remain at his post, and, to put him to the test, asked him to draw up at once a list of all the changes which he had to make in the administration of his department. "I answered in a single word: Madame, I propose no change at all." Then she burst out, and said: "I was well informed; people told me that I should be misunderstood." Rambuteau let her speak, and made her feel that a list of dismissals, if any were made, would have to be headed by his own name.

The interview with the Duchess of Orléans was more dramatic:

"The Duchess was introduced by Mme. du Séran with the same ceremonial as at Versailles. They had not seen each other since 1790. The Duchess trembled greatly, and, after having taken two or three steps, fell on her knees, with arms extended, and screamed 'Pardon, Madame, pardon!'—as if twenty-five years had not elapsed and as if they were both in the hour of their common misfortune. Madame remained motionless, leaving the Duchess dragging herself two or three paces on her knees; then, offering her hand to kiss, she said: 'Rise, Madame.' They sat down, exchanged a few indifferent words, and the audience ended abruptly, without a consoling word having been pronounced. . . . I left in the evening, full of pity for so great misfortunes, full of respect for such a high and firm character, but one in which the woman's heart remained mute and insensible."

The Duchesse d'Angoulême received Mme. de Rambuteau with more amenity, saying to her lady in waiting: "I present to you Mme. de Rambuteau; she is *la petite de Narbonne; une des nôtres.*" "The Duchess," says Rambuteau, "was noble and dignified at all the receptions, accepted my indications for the official answers, accepted everything, ball and banquet, but did not show herself gracious or desirous to please."

The Comte d'Artois afterwards came to Lyons. Rambuteau conversed freely with him, and gave him much information. In their conversations the Prefect sometimes spoke of Napoleon, and called him the Emperor. Fitz-James admonished him *sotto voce:* "Take care, my dear; don't ever use that word before Monseigneur." "I turned quietly towards him and said loudly: 'My dear Edward, there has never been a lackey in my family; therefore I could be a servant of M. Bonaparte.' 'Capital,' said the Prince, to whom I must do justice; 'M. de Rambutau is right, and I honor him the more for his answer.'"

Rambuteau early perceived that the new Government was making itself very unpopular, especially with the army and the middle classes; that the *émigrés* offended the feelings of the country and irritated its pride; everything announced a crisis. "The Emperor," he says, "placed in the island of Elba as in an observatory, was too intelligent not to have foreseen these errors, and not to try to take advantage of them."

Notes.

We receive from the *Athenæum* the gratifying intelligence that Mr. F. M. Nichols has not stayed his hand with the second volume of his 'Epistles of Erasmus' (Longmans), but is at work on the third, dealing with the year 1517.

The late E. Dannreuther's 'The Romantic Period,' in the "Oxford History of Music" (Clarendon Press), was complete at the time of his death and will be passed rapidly through the press.

Messrs. Putnam have in preparation a translation from the French, 'Metapsychic Phenomena,' "a series of impartial experiments made by the celebrated scientist, M. Joseph Maxwell."

'Japanese for Daily Use,' by E. P. Prentys, assisted by Kametaro Sesamoto, is among the spring announcements of W. R. Jenkins

Harper & Bros. will issue directly 'Mrs. Humphry Ward's 'The Marriage of William Ashe'; a 'History of the United States,' from the coming of the Norsemen to the present time, by T. W. Higginson and Prof. Wm. MacDonald of Brown University; 'Seléné,' a poem, by Amélie Rives (Princess Troubetzkoy); and 'Mother and Daughter,' by Mrs. Gabrielle E. Jackson.

'American Thumb-prints,' essays by Miss Kate Stephens, is ready for publication by J. B. Lippincott Co.

John W. Lane & Co., Boston, are about to bring out 'Epigrams and Aphorisms,' by the late Oscar Wilde.

A 'Lexicon Typographicum Italiæ,' or 'Dictionnaire Géographique d'Italie pour servir à l'Histoire de l'Imprimerie dans ce pays,' by G. Fumagalli, will attract all students of early printing. It has just been issued by Leo S. Olschki, Florence (New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer).

The volume of 'The Hawthorne Centenary Celebration at the Wayside, Concord, Mass., July 4-7, 1904' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), follows close upon the report of the Salem proceedings. Mr. Charles Francis Adams and Mr. F. B. Sanborn gave the principal discourses, the former in his well-known unconventional manner. The illustrations are of Hawthorne, Wayside, the path over the knoll behind the house, the boulder with bronze tablet let in—can anything escape a tablet in Concord?

The Salem Proceedings have, since our notice of them, been put forth by the Essex Institute in a large-paper edition, the rubricated title-page set off by an etched vignette of Hawthorne's birthplace. A splendid collection of twenty-two portraits includes all that are known. Three, taken on the same day in 1860, by a London photographer, show what different aspects one face may wear. The latest and most familiar aspect of Hawthorne is distinctly military, partly owing to the moustache, which appears to have been assumed about 1860, as Miss Lander's bust of 1858 shows none. Of all, we think the daguerreotype of 1848 is most to be prized, though it should have been reversed in photographing; yet how different from Cephas Thompson's oil-painting only two years later! There is one profile, of 1862; it might pass for that of a Confederate general of the time. Finally, we will mention the well-known group of Fields, Hawthorne, and Ticknor in the tall stovepipes which were to give way in Hawthorne's case to a slouch hat.

Volumes xi. and xii. of "Early Western Travels" combine unequally the longer 'Memorable Days in America' (1818-20) of William Faux and the shorter Welby's 'Visit to North America' (1819). Both relate to the foregoing English Settlement (or English Prairie) of Birkbecks and Flowers in Illinois. We think Mr. Thwaites both underrates and censures excessively Faux's narrative, which has all the earmarks of honest report. He was a keen and truthful observer, and what he repeats from others seldom lacks verisimilitude. His remarks on slavery are just and forcible. He uttered a cry of humanity against an atrocious case of whipping a negro to death in South Carolina, and made a great sensa-

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tion, his signed letter being printed in the Charleston *Courier*. Many respectable citizens expressed their regret at his advertising the crime, and said his account would be "greedily copied and extensively read to our injury, in the Northern and Eastern States; and all over Europe." "Go," said another, "and do justice to injured Carolina." "To do that," rejoins our blunt Englishman, "would be to make negroes and planters, for a few years, exchange places and stations." Faux listened in 1820 to some of the Missouri debates in Congress, and draws elaborate pictures of Clay, Pinkney, Rufus King, Barbour, and other orators and statesmen. Monroe and Aaron Burr are also in his portrait gallery.

Welby called upon Monroe at the White House. His narrative in general cannot be thought more flattering to our civilization than Faux's. He has, too, not a little to say about slavery, and reports a slave burning (for murder) in Georgia, in 1820, and quotes (xii., pp. 309, 310) a newspaper account of two in South Carolina in 1800. The American habit of soda-water drinking was already striking to foreigners. Welby had a pretty gift for sketching, and his lithographed memoranda of American scenery have a real historic value.

Mr. Kenyon Cox's 'Mixed Beasts: Rhymes and Pictures' (Fox, Duffield & Co.) was composed for his children, and pictorially is in the vein of Edward Lear. It shows us the Elephantom, the Walrustic, the Rabbittern, the Indianaconda, the Flamingocart, the Maniteapot, the Cigarctic Fox, the Peacockle, the Tomatocantelope, and many other monstrosities worthy of Mr. Burbank's failures in inventing vegetable species. First of all is the autobiographic Paintermine, with a quatrain that recalls Coleridge's bard-without-a-penny-in-his-pocket-and-even-without a pocket for his penny:

> "Its innocence deserves no jibe—
> Pity the creature, do not mock it.
> 'Tis type of all the artist tribe:
> Its trousers haven't any pocket."

Most artists of distinction have indulged in thumb-nail caricature at least, in private. Mr. Cox evinces the possession of this humor; and older readers may remark that his poetic gift less easily descends to farce than his artistic. Of all these clever designs we fix upon the Bumblebeaver as the happy compromise between the two extremes of his range; it is comical at once and decorative—and perhaps the accompanying doggerel might be cited as the best, or nearly the best, for we will yield something to the claim of

> "At the bottom of the sea
> The Policemanatee,"

who safeguards the crossings for the pretty mermaid against the Triton's too impetuous course.

'Corner-Stones,' by Katharine Burrill (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a book for girls in their teens. The advice is, as it should be, chiefly negative, and assumes that if the young woman addressed will only discard two-thirds of the characteristics that distinguish them from their grandmothers, the British nation will be safe. The book is written by a Scotchwoman and wholly from the British point of view, which regards smoking as a habit that has long, and rightly, lost its sex-distinction, yet still takes the chaperone for granted. Even the young woman who smokes is reminded that she must make allowances for the "old-fashioned nice man" who does not like to see his own women smoking, though he accepts the inevitable for the rest of womankind. The range of admonitions that may be offered to the modern young woman is very wide indeed, but Mrs. Burrill manages to cover a good deal of the ground, and to illustrate her observations with some apt quotations of verse. In her own field she may be taken as a safe guide, but we hope no young woman will turn to her for advice on grammar. On page 27 we read, "She would have been much better to have merely gone for a brisk walk"—a not unfair example of the style which we have observed to be, as a general rule, consecrated to the instruction of young women in manners and etiquette.

Among the publications of the University of Michigan, a "Humanistic Series" has just been launched, beginning with a volume on Roman Historical Sources and Institutions, under the editorial direction of Dr. Henry A. Saunders. The papers in the present volume are all too technical to be of interest to any but specialists; but perhaps the narrowly limited publication funds of the universities ought not to be expected to furnish material for any but the specialist, however desirable it is that the research workers in these institutions should themselves occasionally state their results in readable form to a wider circle. The series is under the joint control of the departments of philology and philosophy, and volumes are in preparation by Professors George Hempl, Francis W. Kelsey, Robert M. Wenley, and others. The Macmillan Co. are the publishers.

A ponderous volume of Transactions of the Wisconsin Academy buries rather than publishes a short paper on recent criticism of American scholarship, which should have seen the light in some of the higher-grade magazines. Dr. Slichter, the writer, admits that, along the leading lines of modern scientific development, American scholarship has not entered as a factor of serious importance into the general result. The successful application of American energy to invention, however, he regards as an offset, to some extent, to our deficiency in pure science. Alleged defects in the management of the Smithsonian Institution are severely criticised as partially responsible for our poor showing. About four-fifths of the income goes for salaries and expenses of administration, with a minimum to show for that "increase and diffusion of knowledge among men" which was the aim of the founder. Dr. Slichter quotes with approval a recent French writer, Jean Jussieu, to the effect that worldly success, the money-making ideal, has fettered and will continue to fetter American science, but is not quite ready to grant that the tendencies of democracy are inherently fatal to the highest scientific achievement.

The latest of the Knackfuss monographs on artists (Bielefeld and Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) deals with Luca della Robbia and his family, and is written by Paul Schubring. It contains the usual wealth of illustrations which give a special value to this series, enhanced, in the present instance, by the inclusion of a number of illustrations of parallel treatment of subject by other artists, and of eleven plates in colors. These last cannot, of course, give much notion of the beauty of tints and glazes in the originals, but they do give, much more clearly than words could do, an idea of the extent and kind of coloring adopted by different members of the Della Robbia family, and are therefore of very considerable importance. Herr Schubring accepts as by Luca a number of works about which there has been a good deal of doubt and discussion; notably, the puzzling medallions of the Four Evangelists in the Pazzi Chapel, which are as unlike the accepted work of the master in type and form and general conception as they are in this very matter of the use of colored glazes. The theory first put forth by Herr von Liphardt and recently adopted by Maude Crutwell in her book on the Della Robbias, that these medallions are the work of Brunelleschi, the glazing and firing only being done in the Robbia workshop, is, it seems to us, though based on confessedly inadequate knowledge of Brunelleschi's works in sculpture, inherently much more credible than that Luca was ever, either in youth or age, so unlike himself.

The new volume of the Swedish 'Boktryckeri-kalender,' edited and published by Waldemar Zachrisson of Gothenburg, is published for the benefit of a proposed school of printing in that city, and two of the articles deal with trade schools in Copenhagen and London. Two articles are contributed by foreign writers: Mr. H. R. Plomer gives a sketch of the history of the Chiswick Press in London, and the secretary of the book exhibition in the Plantin Museum in Antwerp last summer, Mr. Emmanuel de Boom, describes that show. Baron Per Hierta, a well-known Swedish book collector and bibliophile, continues his series of articles, begun in the previous volume, on "The Invention and the Golden Age of the Art of Printing," and introduces not less than thirty-four facsimiles, reproduced (if we are not mistaken) from books in the author's library. The article is devoted largely to the development of the printing type, and with an eye to this the facsimiles have been selected; they are all finely executed, and show the character of the various types as well as could be expected from facsimiles many times smaller than the original. It would seem, however, that, for a comparative study of the types, a few lines in the actual size of the originals would have been preferable, even at the sacrifice of the artistic quality of the reproductions.

The movement for the erection of a Virchow monument in Berlin has reached the stage of organization of a committee, which has invited competitive sketches, the best three to be awarded sums from one thousand to three thousand marks. The monument is to be erected at the corner of Carl Street and Louisa Street, now generally known as Karlsplatz.

The next International Tuberculosis Congress will be held during the first week in October in Paris under the patronage of President Loubet. The Congress will do its work in two groups, each divided into two sections. The first group will deal with experimental and comparative medico-surgical pathology of tuberculosis, and the second with the prevention and cure of the disease. In connection with the Congress there will be a tuberculosis exhibit with a scientific and a practical division.

Professor Bücher, in retiring from his position as rector of the University of Leip-

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zig, gave public warning to the students against the growth of luxury in academic life. He declared that practically a "code of luxury" had been established, under which a student is ranked in accordance with the amount he spends. He holds a return to the simple and inexpensive, not to say more studious, life of former days to be an imperative necessity.

Lord Cromer's earnest invitation to the English Church Missionary Society to establish stations on the Upper Nile is significant testimony to the value of the intelligent missionary in civilizing the savage. He designates in his letter, dated December 23, a definite, unoccupied district on either side of the White Nile, from the Bahr-el-Ghazal to the northern borders of Uganda and the Congo Free State. In addition to the religious work, he hopes that "special attention will be paid to some simple forms of industrial and agricultural instruction." This request, in which the Governor-General of the Sudan, Sir Reginald Wingate, joins, is regarded as affording the most important opening for the Society's efforts since Mr. Stanley's appeal for Uganda in 1875.

The Damascus-Mecca Railroad has been completed to Ma'an, a town about 60 miles from the Gulf of Akaba, and now there is railway connection between the Mediterranean and the whole Trans-Jordan region and Arabia. The formal opening of the last section was celebrated at the above place on September 1, the anniversary of the accession of the Sultan, who has taken a deep and conspicuous interest in the enterprise. There were present some fifty high officials, besides correspondents of Turkish newspapers; an oration was delivered by the representative of Abdul-Hamid, and medals struck in honor of the occasion were distributed. These bore on one side the Ottoman coat of arms, on the other the inscription: "In commemoration of the opening of the Ma'an section of the Hamidie-Hedjaz Railroad, 1322." The main object of the road, as its name signifies, is to carry pilgrims to Mecca, and so put an end to the perils and sufferings of the caravan life. In 1903 it is estimated that, out of 200,000 pilgrims, 20 per cent. were maltreated, wounded, or killed by the Bedouins, and more than $1,000,000 worth of property was stolen. A branch line to Haifa is open as far as the Jordan and is doing a good business. A fine stone bridge has been built, the first railroad bridge across the historic river.

In judging posthumous portraits of historical personages within the memory of the living, men will always be swayed by considerations of strict likeness to what they have themselves seen. The poetry with which the artist may have invested his subject will be resented, or at least allowed to affect one's interest in the work. One, for example, who saw Lincoln familiarly will thus be apt to want what would be called in prevailing fashion "The True Lincoln." This, certainly, rather than the legendary Lincoln such as Kruell gives us so beautifully, is what has been attained by Mr. Jacques Reich in a large etching, the latest in his series of American statesmen of which we have spoken from time to time. It is "Old Abe," with chin whiskers, in all his uncompromising plainness, and, therefore, all the nearer to the heart of the average American. The original photograph, we are told, is of 1864, one of Brady's, and has the approval of the family. We like best in the etching the treatment of the mouth. Mr. Reich's address is No. 2 West Fourteenth Street, New York.

—A new series, entitled "French Classics for English Readers" (Putnams), purposes giving, in a form both handsome and compact, a set of translations from Rabelais, Montaigne, Molière, and others, which may safely lie on any table. In the first instalment, with an introduction by Dr. Curtis Hidden Page, the work of Rabelais, generously truncated with the pruning-knife, is presented through the well-known version of Urquhart and Motteux. It is not specially designed *in usum puellarum*, yet no reader of this volume need feel constrained to follow Trollope's Archdeacon Grantly, and read his Rabelais only on the sly. Apart from passages of doubtful taste, others familiar through long association disappear; but, as the editor declares, the continuity of the story does not suffer seriously. Still, the true Rabelaisian cannot but miss the satirical enumeration of books in the "Librairye de Sainct-Victor" or the humorous episode of Panurge in peril of the deep waters. In the last two books the excisions are extensive. Dr. Page's introduction brings the spirit of Rabelaisian satire into relation with the work of other critics or cavillers from Aristophanes to Sterne, pointing out the extravagances of Rabelais's genius, and avoiding the too common error of the single point of view in attempting the reduction of his colossal complexity of scheme to a fixed unity of design. What, however, seems to distinguish Rabelais from the majority of satirists here mentioned is the undisguised *joviality* of his humor, skilfully combined with a most unmistakable purpose of specific attack on institutions and the rectifying of definite abuses. The notes are chiefly Ozell's, and might easily be enlarged or improved. For instance, the famous definition, "Deus, sphæra cujus centrum ubique, circumferentia nullibi," was not original with Rabelais, but is often attributed to Hermes Trismegistus. And why should *Dindenault* ever have been translated "Dingdong"?

—The tour of the Mediterranean is now so much a matter of course and so frequently made that a compact special guide-book for this sole purpose must commend itself to the traveller who wishes to minimize his *impedimenta*. 'The Mediterranean Traveller,' by Dr. E. D. Lorenz (Fleming H. Revell Co.), aims at fulfilling this purpose in a volume of about 350 pages, containing fifteen maps and plans and some pleasing but perhaps superfluous reproductions of photographs. The itinerary extends from Portugal, Madeira, and Spain, on the west, to Turkey, Palestine and Egypt, in the Levant, and includes an excursion to Tangier, Biskra, and Tripoli. No instructions are given as to routes and steamboat lines between the various ports, perhaps because it is assumed that the voyage will be made continuously on an excursion steamer. Obviously, however, this is an omission which should be rectified in future editions, and at the same time more minute information as to hotels might profitably be added. Ample room for such a supplement might be obtained by omitting, here and there, a page or paragraph of moralizings and reflections which the traveller is competent to provide for himself, according to his own mood. The text is in some portions accurate and businesslike, but in others it reveals amateurishness, and some inaccuracies and misprints, *e. g.*, Dionysius (for Dionysus), Sympegades, Delhi (for Delphi), Doge Dondols (Dandolo). The battle of Salamis is dated 430 B. C. (p. 111); page 114, seventeenth chapter of Acts should be read for seventh; on page 130, one lepta and 100 leptas occur (for lepton and lepta). The monuments similar to that of Lysicrates were not erected by winners of Dionysiac "games" (p. 117) but contests. The name of Alexander is not inscribed on the so-called Alexander Sarcophagus, as is stated on page 147. On page 134, the writer has twice confounded the Bosphorus with the Hellespont (Dardanelles): "Across the Bosphorus, Xerxes built his wonderful bridge of boats." The compiler of the description and plan of Pompeii ignores, or is unaware of, Mau's researches and identifications. Such errors will not, of course, prevent the tourist from reaching his destination, but they evidently call for some strenuous and expert revision.

—The Rev. Joel Foote Bingham, D.D., L.H.D., has translated Manzoni's 'Sacred Hymns and Napoleonic Ode' (Henry Frowde), and added so much comment that the result is a book of over 200 pages. His elucidation is so microscopic, indeed, that it may fairly be said that not a comma has escaped him. One cannot help feeling that the "letter killeth" when such obsequious attention is paid to it. For example, in the first two lines of the fourth stanza of "The Passion," which read in Dr. Bingham's version,

> "He is the Just the wicked crew
> In unresisting silence slew,"

is it necessary to quote Isaiah, xliii., 7, "He is brought as a lamb to the slaughter; and as a sheep before her shearers is dumb, so He openeth not His mouth"? Must nothing be left to the imagination? Must the ignorance of persons likely to use such a book be assumed to be total? Dr. Bingham's translations are painstaking, and, if one knows the original, one can recognize that he has given an equivalent for many of Manzoni's thoughts; but the metrical charm and the poetry have evaporated. Hymns are seldom poetic; it is enough if they are pious and adapted to church singing. For instead of imagination or poetic fancy, they offer Scriptural phrases or liturgical formulas which may have intense associations of worship, but be as unpoetic as a sentry's countersign. As a specimen of Dr. Bingham's skill, we quote stanza 7 of "The Nativity":

> "O Thou begot eternally
> Of the Eternal, one with Thee,
> Which 'mong the endless ages can
> Declare: 'With me Thy race began'?
> Thou art. And of Thy vast command
> The whole contains not Thee. Thy hand
> Has made and makes it stand."

Would anybody suspect that to be poetry? When he comes to Manzoni's stupendous ode on the death of Napoleon, Dr. Bingham falls far short. A hymn will pass, no matter what it says, so long as it is properly cut up into long metre or common metre; not so a magnificent poem, wonderful alike for its imagination, its metrical beauty, and its diction. Of the attempts to render "Il Cinque Maggio" in English, from that of Alexander Everett to this of Dr. Bingham,

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the least unsatisfactory is Mr. Howells's. Here is Dr. Bingham's version of the stanza beginning *Tutto ei provò:*

"All he tasted; glory growing
Greater after great embroil;
Flight; and victory bestowing
Palace; and the sad exile;
Twice in the dust a victim razed,
Twice on the altar victim blazed."

Comment is unnecessary. But whoever desires a complete outfit of notes and critical opinions on Manzoni's hymns and ode will find them in this book.

—'From Epicurus to Christ,' by Dr. William De Witte Hyde (Macmillan), is a popular study of four schools of Greek philosophy considered only on their ethical side. In his first four chapters Dr. Hyde sums up the contribution to ethics of Epicurus, the Stoics, Plato, and Aristotle, and in the fifth and last adds to his eclectic system of ethics the final ingredient of the teaching of Christ. Why he should so disregard chronological order as to deal with Epicurus and the Stoics first, he does not explain, nor is it at all apparent. The book is hortatory and not historical. It is an endeavor to apply to modern life the fundamental teaching of the four Greek schools on the art of living. When that is done, and it has been shown that there is something of value for modern life in the pursuit of pleasure with Epicurus, the stern doctrine of self-control, the "Platonic subordination of lower to higher," and the Aristotelian sense of proportion, the exposition becomes a sermon, with its exhortation to temper all these principles by the "Christian spirit of love." "The time is ripe for a Christianity which shall have room for all the innocent joys of sense and flesh, of mind and heart, which Epicurus taught us to prize aright; yet shall have the Stoic strength to make whatever sacrifice of them the universal good requires; which shall purge the heart of pride and pretence by questionings of motives as searching as those of Plato; and at the same time shall hold life to as strict accountability for practical usefulness and social progress as Aristotle's doctrines of the end and the mean require." Dr. Hyde is extremely practical in his application of Greek philosophy to modern life. You can begin your day by consulting page 124, and considering which is the better breakfast, the American or the European, when judged by the Platonic teaching of the inferiority of appetite to reason. On page 127, Dr. Hyde discusses the question of dismissing your cook as Plato might have discussed the question of dismissing his, in a situation where that famous second part of the soul, "the spirit of anger," seemed about to get the whip-hand of reason. On page 135 he tells us what Plato would have thought of manual training and nature study. Later he carves ten commandments out of Aristotle, and tells us what he would have thought of the clubwoman. Dr. Hyde's literature of Stoicism ranges from Marcus Aurelius to Henley and W. S. Gilbert. The only serious criticism to be made on the book is the order of the chapters. Few readers unacquainted with the classics could escape the impression that the Greek philosophers represent a gradual ascent, in the course of which they lifted themselves above the Epicurean pursuit of pleasure to the heights of Platonism, and so were prepared for the teaching of Christ.

—In the last issue of the *American Journal of Archæology*, Vol. VIII., No. 4, Mr. Clarence S. Fisher, architect of the last expedition sent out to Nippur by the University of Pennsylvania, 1898-1900, presents the first results of his work in that connection under the title, "The Mycenæan Palace at Nippur." The first expedition, 1888-1890, partially excavated a palace built around a colonnaded court, which was reported as a structure of the Kassite period, at or somewhat after 1200 B. C. In his volume entitled 'The Excavations in Assyria and Babylonia,' published in 1904 and carrying the account of the excavations of Nippur down to the year 1900, when this palace was entirely excavated, Professor Hilprecht rejected the above date with some contumely, and assigned the building to the Seleucidan period, in the third or even the second century B. C., largely on the ground that the architecture, and especially the free use of columns, indicated Greek influence. Mr. Fisher shows conclusively, from a study of the overlying strata, that this is impossible, and that the conclusions of the original explorers were correct as regards date. New and startling is the method by which he explains the apparently Greek features in the architecture of this palace, in the very heart of Babylonia, namely, that it is Mycenæan. Its plan is in general the same as that of the palace at Tiryns. It has the same arrangement of *prothyron*, court with colonnades, *aithousa*, *prodomos*, and presumably also *megaron* with hearth, and the same division into two parts for men and women respectively. This argument from the correspondence of building-plans Mr. Fisher fortifies by the study of a few small objects found at Nippur, which seem to him to show a Mycenæan workmanship or design, notably, a small terra-cotta stele of a tree, with wild goats rampant on either side, which he compares with a gem from Mycenæ having a similar motive. His theory is that, at the time of the breaking up of the Mycenæan civilization and the migration of the nations, between 1200 and 1000 B. C., Mycenæan fragments were projected as far to the east and south as Babylonia. In view of our present limited information and especially our almost complete ignorance of the early art history of the region lying between Assyria-Babylonia and the Mediterranean, such a conclusion appears premature. The evidence presented certainly suggests some intercourse and relationship between the Greek and Babylonian regions at the end of the second millennium before Christ, possibly not altogether unlike that which existed in the Seleucidan and Parthian periods, a thousand years later. It is also possible that explorations in the intervening region or in Asia Minor may reveal some now unknown common source which affected both Babylonia and the Ægæan coasts and islands.

—A pamphlet recently issued from the Weather Bureau upon "Long-Range Forecasts" opens with the pertinent remark that "the proof of the forecast is in its verification," and continues by saying that meteorologists who have theories of their own, or who have tested those of others by recorded facts, obtain only negative results. Long-range forecasting, subjected to scientific investigation, is found to be curiously unjustified by fact. The popular notion that the moon influences the weather is also treated in this very interesting pamphlet, and is given at least respectful overthrow. As long ago as 1868 the attitude of the scientific world is indicated by the utterance of Alexander Buchan, secretary of the Scottish Meteorological Society: "That the moon's changes exercise an influence so strongly marked as to make itself almost immediately felt in bringing about fair or rainy or settled or stormy weather, an examination of meteorological records extending over many years conclusively disproves." On the other hand, it is admitted that sun-spots may be associated with terrestrial phenomena; but planetary meteorology is one of the relics of astrology. The decided influence of ocean currents on climate is treated at length, particularly that of the Gulf Stream and the Japan Current (Kurosiwo); and the opinion is quoted from *Nature* that the next development of weather study will almost certainly be in the direction of international or world meteorology and its relation to the phenomena of sunspots and terrestrial magnetism.

THE DOUKHOBORS.

A Peculiar People: The Doukhobors. By Aylmer Maude. With illustrations. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 1904.

At last we have a work from which the student of sociological experiments and systems, as well as the ordinary layman, can obtain a fair, clear, and sufficiently complete conception of the truly "peculiar" Russian sectarians about whom so much that is prejudiced or erroneous has been written. Previous writers have been ill equipped, in one respect or another, to understand the complex problems and situations involved. Mr. Maude has the advantage of having been intimately associated with the emigration to Canada of the Doukhobors; the Russian sources of information are accessible to him; and his admirable frankness in acknowledging his change of views in various directions makes the reader feel from the very first page that facts have been truthfully and impartially presented. He explains, in his preface, that the first chapter is an abbreviated and corrected reprint of a chapter in the first edition of his 'Tolstoy and his Problems,' published three years ago, and that he reissues it because it shows how some of those most closely connected with the immigration viewed the matter at the time. He admits that the famous "pilgrimages" showed him that he had been misinformed about the sect. "That my explanation, after discovering my mistake," he says, "has been so long delayed is due to the intricacy of the problem, to my unwillingness to risk blundering a second time, and to a certain reluctance to challenge opinions more or less vouched for by Tolstoy and strongly advocated by his lieutenant, Tchertkoff." It is precisely these (heretofore) unchallenged opinions which have obtained currency; and Mr. Maude is justified in asserting that his volume contains much that is new to English readers, and provides the first consecutive sketch in the English language of the history of this interesting sect.

The first chapter reads a good deal like an argument in behalf of the defendant in a criminal case. Mr. Maude mentions the

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difficulty which arises from the lack of impartiality in what has been written about his protégés. When trying, originally, to state the case fairly, he fell into the error of assuming that the information supplied by the friends of the Doukhobors was more reliable than that emanating from the other camp. He is consequently obliged, from time to time, to add footnotes in which he acknowledges that he is now obliged to modify his favorable impressions. Herein precisely lies one of the merits of his work—the possibility of comparing the views of an enthusiast and a disillusioned convert in one and the same person. He furnishes a valuable history of the sect's beliefs, with ample quotations from Novitzky's book, which the Doukhobors adopted as a correct statement of their faith. He gives Novitzky's unfavorable criticisms frankly: "He [Novitzky] says that superstition, anger, and quarrels were prevalent among them, and the 'distinguishing traits in their character is obstinacy in their doctrine, insubordination to the authorities, insults and slander towards those who differ from them. They are very eager to get money,'" and so forth. "In practice," Mr. Maude continues, "the Doukhobor theocracy became, in course of time, a one-man power, based to some extent on custom, also partly on superstition, and more absolute than most monarchies. The rejection of all Church rites has not prevented the establishment, by custom, of meetings for worship, with forms as definite and as strictly maintained as those of most churches." He admits that there seems to be something mysterious about the laxity in moral matters allowed to the leaders of the Doukhobors, which the latter are reluctant to have investigated even by those who sympathize with them in their general views. He also gives a succinct account of the origin, rise, peregrinations, and leaders of the sect, with a survey of their customs and rules; and he shows how the split occurred which resulted in the appeal of one party against their brethren to the Russian authorities, ending, after many vicissitudes, in the voluntary expatriation of the majority.

Even before Mr. Maude had learned as much concerning the difficulty of dealing with these intractable people—and there are times when one feels that he would like to call them plainly "cantankerous"—he declares that the Russian general who was appointed to hear the Doukhobors' statement of the case and investigate the whole matter, actually went as far as most of the English clergy or officials would be prepared to go. Mr. Maude had not the advantage of having visited these people at their homes in the Caucasus; but Prince D. A. Hilkoff (nephew of the Minister of Ways and Communications) did so live with them, and Mr. Maude got his information from him when these two men and two specimen Doukhobor families travelled to Canada together on a tour of investigation. He also had sufficient personal experience with them to learn that, while they were, "in the eyes of the Tolstoyans, a folk who had well-nigh realized the Christian ideal," and really do possess many fine characteristics, there was reason for skepticism as to the claims for collective saintship set up for the Doukhobors by the Tolstoyans—the claims which are, practically, accepted by the world in general to the present day, with a few apologies thrown in for the temporary aberration of the extraordinary "pilgrimages." Mr. Maude says that his eyes began to be opened during his stay in Canada. They have been fully opened by later events.

Two important chapters on the "Sources of Doukhoborism" and "Doukhobor History" follow the account of the Canadian trip, and prepare the reader to understand many peculiarities which he meets with in the more recent history of this sect. Most curious of all (apart from the claims of various leaders to be God or Christ) is the story of their present leader, Peter Verigin, and the manner in which Count L. N. Tolstoy contributed some points of doctrine to their rather indefinite and fluid creed, and, although misled as to their character in general, nevertheless exerted a powerful influence on their fate. As for the contention that the Doukhobors believe in the divinity of their leaders, Mr. Maude shows that, unless the evidence pointing to that belief be accepted, the most remarkable occurrences in their history become absolutely unintelligible. That the influence of this belief has proved pernicious is demonstrated by the patent fact that it has caused two wholesale removals of the sect, with all the inevitable losses, suffering, and recriminations. In particular, it would appear to have been directly responsible for all the resounding troubles in the Caucasus and the eventual emigration to Canada, including the long exile of the leader Verigin, and the infusion of certain Tolstoyan doctrines which, as Mr. Maude confesses, were productive of many hardships and difficulties. An interesting point in this connection is Verigin's claim that he had no knowledge of Tolstoy's doctrines, while his own letters prove the contrary. The logical deduction would seem to be that he assumes to be the source from which all doctrine must emanate. Yet he borrows whole passages, verbatim, from one of Tolstoy's books, containing, in particular, a long quotation from the Declaration of Sentiments which William Lloyd Garrison drew up in 1838 for a Peace Convention held in Boston! Tolstoy's theory of non-resistance they proceeded to interpret in their own manner, and Mr. Maude remarks: "Verigin's immature assimilation of Tolstoy's not infallible opinions has, I fear, not tended much to enlighten or to clarify the mental perceptions of the sect, which he [Verigin] supplies with beliefs." Moreover, when Verigin reached Canada and saw the mess which his people were in through their interpretation, "he took the task in hand vigorously, and did not hesitate, on occasion, to call in the aid of that physical force which is such a terrible bugbear to Tolstoy." Having gloried in the name of Doukhobors (first conferred on them in reprobation), and asserted that they would die rather than change it, at Verigin's command they promptly and meekly did change it to "The Christian Community of Universal Brotherhood"; and Mr. Maude quotes the pithy comment of one who saw much of them in Canada: "They belie every noun and adjective of their cumbrous title."

Mr. Maude has had personal experience in the workings of a Tolstoy colony, at Burleigh, in Essex; for that reason, his thoughtful analysis of the Tolstoy doctrines and mistakes, on pages 164-166 (as well as elsewhere), are deserving of careful attention. He explains, with significant italics, that the Doukhobors won Tolstoy's sympathy "because they professed the very principles of Christian anarchy dear to Tolstoy, and (apparently) put these into actual practice *without that disintegrating result* so painfully evident in the failure of the Tolstoy colonies." In Canada, as the author shows us in detail, the communistic and the individual system prevailed, at different periods and in various degrees, among the several colonies of Doukhobors, until the arrival of Verigin from Siberian exile. Experience proved that the individualist practice was the best. "Generally speaking (with occasional exceptions), where the 'new life' was most strictly carried out, there human relations were most strained, least natural, and least healthy," is the verdict which Mr. Maude quotes from an observer who was long and intimately connected with Doukhobor life in Canada. The writer's general comment, which covers much ground, is: "One cannot follow the perturbed movement of these very sincere and worthy, but very ignorant, folk without being conscious of the responsibility that belongs to those educated men who weave social theories, and by literary skill hypnotize others into staking their lives on the validity of such theories."

After dealing very fully and impartially with the famous "pilgrimages," the author devotes a long chapter to the consideration of "Communism," chiefly, of course, in its bearings upon the Doukhobor theory and practice. His main conclusion is, that, while the sect is now flourishing under that system, under the strongly despotic and extremely able rule of Peter Verigin, yet "it does not at all correspond (as I, agreeing in this respect with the Toystoyans, was at one time inclined to assume) with any *moral* advance. In many cases it seems rather to indicate the reverse."

"The objection to communism as we see it reëstablished among them is really a *moral* objection; though at first it might not appear as weighty as the moral indictment Tolstoy brings against individualism. The fact, I suspect, is that *any* form of human organization that a man of Tolstoy's powerful critical capacity, impulsive temperament, and eagerness for human improvement might live under, would (being an imperfect human contrivance) seem to him abominably wicked; and the form of which he had less personal experience would, by contrast, always appear to him comparatively moral. I feel sure that if he cannot tolerate the yoke of Nicholas II., still less would he tolerate that of Peter Verigin, which certainly comes closer to the actual daily life and thought and occupation of each Doukhobor than the rule of any Emperor or Pope in Christendom comes to his subjects or to the adherents of his Church."

Yet Mr. Maude admits that Verigin's relentless despotism has been good for the sect, and was absolutely needed when first applied, although great dissatisfaction now exists over the enforcement of communism. Much quarrelling and fighting has been the result of this system, according to the testimony of a keen observer in 1903, in places where peace prevailed under the individualistic system; and the testimony of an intelligent Doukhobor, in a letter to Mr. Maude, asserts that the Commune "is nourished by anger, by defrauding one another, by slander and by violence." Meanwhile, as to the great and constantly increasing material welfare of the sect under the present system, there seems to be no doubt.

Mr. Maude has been known as an enthusiastic Tolstoyan and ardent advocate of all Tolstoy's ideas, to an extreme degree. In a

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footnote he announces a change of view which may be quoted: "Greatly as I admire Tolstoy, I do not claim to rank as a Tolstoyan, but agree with those who would employ and improve existing institutions rather than abandon them as incurably corrupt." In this spirit of fairness, and guided by a spirit of justice to all parties, and entirely adequate preparation in the past (both of experience and first-class information), he has made a book which should be carefully read and pondered by all students of social topics, as well as by those who have been or are especially interested in the Doukhobors.

HURRELL FROUDE.

Hurrell Froude: Memoranda and Comments. By Louise Imogen Guiney. With seven illustrations. London: Methuen & Co.

Miss Guiney's book is in two parts. First, we have from her hand a biographical study of her subject in 229 pages, into which many letters from and to Froude are taken up; and, second, we have a collection of some thirty comments, covering 176 pages, upon Froude's person, character, and career. These demonstrate that Froude has excited abundant interest among the more or less friendly historians and critics of the Oxford Movement. But all these comments, it should be observed, have an incidental character. None of them are from books devoted exclusively or dominantly to Froude, except those from the 'Remains of Richard Hurrell Froude,' published in 1838. This must be thought strange. Miss Guiney might well address herself to fill so obvious a gap. She has brought to her task abundant sympathy and much careful preparation. If her judgment is at fault, she has furnished us the means of correcting it in no halting fashion. Her collection of comments is no mere device for confirming her own views. Here is the most flattering commendation jostled by strictures that are extremely angular and harsh; on the one hand Newman's exaltation, on the other such mordant depreciation as Mark Pattison's. Many, and indeed most, of these comments are familiar to the coterie to which the Oxford Movement is always an engaging matter, but it was a happy thought to present a conspectus at once so extended and so fair.

Dean Church's nice discrimination, from his 'Oxford Movement,' has deservedly the place of honor, but some of the most notable extracts are from far less accessible sources. A full and trenchant one is that from Sir James Stephen's 'Essays in Ecclesiastical Biography.' His son Fitzjames could strike no harder blows than these; his son Leslie pierce the joints of an opponent's armor with no keener thrust. Sir James's anti-slavery associations with Wilberforce, Zachary Macaulay, and others of "the Clapham sect," made Froude particularly obnoxious to him when, during a period of residence in the Barbadoes, Froude finds in "the niggers" (he has no other name for them) a fresh excitement of his habitually active spleen. The give and take of J. A. Froude and E. A. Freeman over the former's covert reference to his brother in his 'Life and Times of Thomas Becket,' is more damaging to Freeman than his controversies with Froude were for the most part. Froude says:

"I look back upon my brother as, on the whole, the most remarkable man I have ever met in my life. I have never seen any person—not one!—in whom, as I now think of him, the excellences of intellect and character were combined in fuller measure. . . . I consider the publication of the 'Remains' the greatest injury that was ever done to my brother's memory."

Richard Hurrell Froude was the eldest, as James Anthony was the youngest, of eight children of Archdeacon Robert Froude. There was a difference of fifteen years between the two brothers. Miss Guiney's standpoint is that of an ardent Roman Catholic convert who is persuaded that, if Froude had lived a few years longer, he would have made his peace with Rome, not following Newman, but leading him, and shortening his death-bed agony, as Newman regarded his last Anglican years, a good deal. He was certainly, as Charles II. said of himself, "an unconscionably long time a-dying." There has been much difference of opinion as to where Froude would have brought up, but Miss Guiney's judgment seems to be sustained. His hatred of Protestantism was certainly much more acute than Keble's or Newman's, his principal coadjutors in the origination of the Oxford Movement. In 1836 he adjured Newman to stop his "cursing and swearing," meaning his criticisms on the Roman system. Miss Guiney's point of view necessitates her favorable opinion of Froude in proportion to the definiteness of his Roman inclination. She is not novel, and she is undoubtedly sound, in her opinion of Froude's relation to Keble on the one hand and Newman on the other. Keble was his teacher and inspirer; he was Newman's. It is quite possible that, without the action of his energizing disposition upon Newman's mind, the currents of the latter's tendency to Rome would have been turned away and lost the name of action. Newman's intelligence and culture were so much larger than Froude's that his subjection to his friend's influence may appear unwarranted, but the spectacle of a stronger intelligence subject to a weaker is not uncommon, especially where the stronger intelligence is joined with a weaker will. Newman had the Hamlet, Froude the Hotspur disposition. Nor is it likely that Froude's influence upon Newman was diminished by Froude's death. Newman's publication of Froude's 'Remains,' to many so malodorous, goes far to prove that for him his friend's death was an apotheosis, and idealized and consecrated for him even those elements of Froude's character which for more sober minds were limitations and defects.

Miss Guiney has done her best to supplement the more obvious sources at her command, the 'Remains' being preëminent among these, with others more remote; but great gaps in Froude's correspondence have opened with the lapse of time, and some of the deficiencies she has not been able with her utmost diligence to make good. The most interesting letter which she presents is not one of Froude's, nor one of Newman's, but a long one written by Froude's mother, apparently to some imaginary person, but very certainly for his warning and rebuke. Whether he ever saw it and what good it did him are things left untold. We gather that as a boy he was an insufferable little wretch. A spirit of mischief was his dominant trait; this with a spice of cruelty, which did not spare his invalid mother. He was already seventeen when the letter was written, and after a period of improvement he had relapsed into his worse and meaner faults. His "funny tormenting," as he called it, kept a younger brother screaming under the sick mother's window for an hour, his aim being to increase her misery. It is strange that it does not occur to Miss Guiney that something of this worrying temper, this teasing disposition, remained with him through life. After the death of his mother, he worried the Evangelicals, he worried his friends, he worried himself. He cultivated the pleasant art of saying disagreeable things. Miss Guiney admires his "fierce sincerity," but more obvious is a certain histrionic quality. To be astonishing and shocking was his meat and drink. If it be demurred that his most daring flippancies were in his private letters and journals, and only published by his friends, it must be answered that his talk appears to have been even more extravagant and outrageous. What we most miss in him is the ground-tone of reality.

His relations with Keble were the most beneficent of his maturer years. They began in 1821, only a year after the mother's anxious letter, when Froude went to Oxford and had Keble for his Oriel tutor. It was from Keble that he derived the ideas of a High-Church system very different from that type, so comfortable and so little militant, in which he had been reared under his father's arch-diaconate. In 1825, two years before the publication of 'The Christian Year,' we find Froude sending Keble his criticisms of that classic, presumptuous for his years, but wiser than the general acclaim. There was "something Sternhold and Hopkinsy in the diction" which he "began to note down, but, finding it went through, concluded it was done on a theory." He finds it "addressed too exclusively to plain, matter-of-fact, good sort of people," not enough to the "visionary and uncomfortable."

Wide was the range of Froude's abhorrence. It included Hampden, Milton, Wyclif, Luther, Cranmer, Latimer, and the Protestant Reformers generally; the Reform Bill of 1832, and, indeed, everybody and everything that has engaged the sympathy of liberal minds. A sonnet on "The Hateful Party" cannot be fitted confidently to the Reformers of the sixteenth century or to those of 1832. Both were the same to him—

> "Those proud, bad men whose unrelenting sway
> Hath shattered holiest things."

All reformers and reforms were as such distasteful to him. The Oxford Movement attracted him not as a reform, but as a reaction. But, apart from the exigencies of his particular fight, he had some wider sympathies, and wrote of Socrates, and of paganism in general, with no stinted praise. In this connection it may be said that his learning, compared with Newman's, was alphabetical, and yet Newman was remarkable for the immense voids in his reading, confessing, "I never read a word of Coleridge; I never read a word of Kant." The *nil admirari* disposition was as far as possible from Froude. Each repulsion had some equivalent attraction. Sometimes we pass directly from one note to the other. Thus: "I am glad to know something of the Puritans, as it gives me a better right

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to hate Milton, and accounts for many of the things which most disgusted me in his not in my sense of the word poetry. Also, I adore King Charles and Bishop Laud!" Froude's own poetry, often very beautiful, consisted mainly in hitching his Romanizing Anglicanism to some star-like Bible incident or phrase.

Miss Guiney follows Newman's lead in taking Froude very seriously in his main effect, but humorously when he comes in a too questionable shape for her ethical requirements. Visiting Rome with Newman and meeting Wiseman (not yet cardinal), he writes:

"We got introduced to him to find out whether they would take us in on any terms to which we could twist our consciences, and we found to our dismay that not one step could be taken without our swallowing the Council of Trent as a whole."

Miss Guiney agrees with Newman in treating this as a bit of jesting extravagance, but in its connection it seems to be intended seriously enough. That Newman contemplated at this time (1833) the Roman ending to which he did not arrive till 1845, is tolerably plain. Only two months later he wrote "Lead, Kindly Light," in which hymn

"I do not ask to see the distant scene"

means plainly that he preferred a wilful ignorance of his journey's end to any frank anticipation of his certain goal.

We have Froude saying of Wiseman: "He desired me to apply to him if on any future occasion I had to consult the Vatican Library; and a transaction of that sort would sound well." Here may be, as Miss Guiney thinks, humorously cruel self-depreciation; but the truth appears to be that the man who was a mischievous boy at seventeen, teasing a small brother and sick mother, was at thirty still dreadfully young and remained so till his death, in 1836. It is evident that he made a personal impression to which there was nothing fully corresponding in his journals, letters, and published writings, among which were four of the famous "Tracts against the Times," as George Eliot called them. These had too little of the vivacity of his letters and his talk. It was quite impossible for the more sober critics to find in the 'Remains' the man of Newman's passionate admiration. His little learning was a dangerous thing, unqualified as it was by a due modesty. Whether, had he lived longer, he would have developed a juster tone, with less eagerness to "make a row," no one can now make out. The publication of the 'Remains' was an ecclesiastical scandal of no ordinary celebrity. It put Newman in a very bad light, so glared in it his lack of taste and judgment. It gave the Movement a setback from which it never recovered. And though Froude's function as "Keble's poker" and Newman's spur was undoubtedly of great importance, he remains at the end of Miss Guiney's affectionate rehabilitation preëminently remarkable for the prolonged immaturity of his mind and the wild and whirling rashness of his speech. It is strange that she should think to honor him by predicating of him "an utter disregard of human feeling where the interests of religion were concerned"—the terms of Newman's praise for St. Basil.

TILLEY'S LITERATURE OF THE FRENCH RENAISSANCE.

The Literature of the French Renaissance. By Arthur Tilley, M.A. 2 Vols. Cambridge (England): University Press; New York: Macmillan.

There is no more complicated period in French literature than the sixteenth century, and, with some exceptions, such as Rabelais, Ronsard, Montaigne, or Calvin, few of its writers were formerly studied with interest, although, as far back as the beginning of the nineteenth century, Sainte-Beuve rediscovered much of its poetry. But of recent years, as the traditions of historians of the Nisard type, circumscribed in their classicism, have passed away, and the fields for original research become more narrow, the sixteenth century has received much attention. Not only has the favorite study of origins shown the poets of the Renaissance to be in many respects the ancestors of an apparently very different classicism, but other literary genealogies and parallels, such as between Montaigne and Pascal, have been emphasized. Fuller notice is now taken than formerly in the programmes of French *lycées* and colleges of the writers of that time, and a considerable proportion of the theses for the French doctorate are monographs on its less read poets and prose writers. The *Revue des Etudes Rabelaisiennes* and the spasmodic *Revue de la Renaissance* are two new periodicals devoted to the same age, and even the more general *Revue d'Histoire Littéraire de la France* gives considerable space to the sixteenth century.

The result is a vast amount of uncorrelated matter, which the student has been obliged to seek in many remote quarters, especially if any question of international influence was involved. In 1898 Heinrich Morf issued his small handbook of facts, and now, by an interesting coincidence, Mr. Arthur Tilley's 'Literature of the French Renaissance' appears soon after the opening *fascicule* of M. Brunetière's history of modern French literature, the first volume of which is to deal with the sixteenth century. The two works (for enough of M. Brunetière's chapters have appeared—some in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*—to enable one to discern his treatment), are decidedly different, and, frankly, M. Brunetière's work is going to be infinitely more readable than that of the Cambridge don. M. Brunetière sets forth, with a minimum of notes and with the usual clearness of classification for which French critics are so distinguished, the main ideas exemplified in the Renaissance and its authors. Even for him the first step is no easy one, because, as he has often complained, there is absolutely no history of the important Latin literature of French humanism which had so great an influence on the Humanists of the Pleiad. A large amount of even lyrical poetry was written in Latin in the early sixteenth century, nor was it all in the form of schoolboy exercises. By the side of scholars such as Budé, the Latin poets Salmon Macrin, Nicolas Bourbon, and Jacques Voulté deserve more than the passing mention that Mr. Tilley gives them.

The early first half of the sixteenth century is, indeed, at first sight a chaos, and the reign of Francis I. seems to present an almost inextricable confusion. But a closer examination distinguishes three main tendencies whose conflicting or concurrent action contributes to this confusion, namely, of the Renaissance proper, of Humanism, and of the Reformation. Humanism may be differentiated from the Renaissance feeling as being, not the mere bursting free from the shackles of individual authority, but the return to the authority of a more remote and better known antiquity; just as the Reformation is the acceptance of a new servitude drawn from the tenets of the primitive Church. And it is because so many writers participate in different movements at different periods that the early sixteenth century seems confusing. How far was Marot a Humanist and how far a Reformer? What was the position of Margaret of Navarre? Was Rabelais, the greatest and fullest writer of his age, more a Humanist or a Man of the Renaissance?

Another reason for emphasizing the study of French literature in Latin in a history of the century lies in the fact that not only were Rabelais and Montaigne Humanists in temperament and training, but the whole Pleiad movement is merely an expression of the feeling of Humanism in literature. Ronsard, Du Bellay, and their followers were, in their love for both Greece and Rome, pure Humanists, and the "manifesto" of the school, the 'Défense et Illustration,' was merely the battle-call of writers whose views were precisely those of the learned scholars about them, and who differed from them only in demanding the use of French and in proclaiming its possibilities as a means of expression.

Such are some of the many questions raised by this confusing period, whose solution demands a full exposition of the literature of Humanism, which, though it concerns French so closely, was itself mainly in another language. We should have been glad to see the difficult task undertaken by Mr. Tilley. He clearly possesses all the qualities of painstaking research and of accuracy required for it, and in 1885 he did publish an introductory essay on the Humanistic stage, which, though in many respects immature and superficial, should not have deterred him from more elaborate investigation. The value of the present history is, indeed, precisely in respect of minute research. The work is certainly tedious: it may be doubted whether the most devoted lover of the sixteenth century would have courage to read it through from beginning to end. The author has worked into his text or his notes mention of almost every article, important or unimportant, dealing with sixteenth-century topics, so that one is sometimes tempted to ask if the narrative was not written round the references. Moreover, there are useful appendices to the chapters, giving general bibliographical information; material concerning the older investigators such as Lacroix du Maine, Du Verdier, Colletet, Niceron, Goujet, etc., whose writings are still indispensable to the student of the sixteenth century; and even collations of the early editions of important writers, such as Rabelais. This stamps his work as most useful for reference.

He has divided his study into three parts, beginning with the accession of Francis I. The first has as central figures Marot and Rabelais, and one chapter is assigned to Humanism. The second is devoted to the Pleiad, and the third largely to Montaigne.

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In the second and third parts the author's task was more easy. With the advent of the Pleiad the differentiation of literature into *genres* begins to show itself, and it becomes possible to study the poets as composers of sonnets, of odes, of epics, or even to group the drama under one separate head. Mr. Tilley adheres, it is true, as much as possible to the biographical treatment, taking each author separately, but the reader's course is now much smoother, though the new period is not without its complications, and problems such as the relative priority of certain odes of Ronsard and Du Bellay beset the study of the various isms—Pindarism, Petrarchism, Anacreontism—of which the history of the Pleiad is full.

In this second part of the century the influence of Italy becomes prominent. Italianism is significant enough in the age of Francis I., but in the school of Desportes and the later members of the Pleiad group a debased Petrarchism did much to bring upon the literature of the period a discredit which it had to bear from the time of Malherbe to the last century. And yet it was the period of Montaigne, of Ramus, the greatest technical philosopher in France between the days of the schoolmen and Descartes; of D'Aubigné, one of the few successful epic poets since the Middle Ages; and of Du Bartas, who, in the opinion of the English Puritans and of Goethe, was one of the greatest writers of epic.

The critical attitude of our author is judicious and eminently safe. His method is to register all possible conflicting views, and then select the most conservative judgment. Take it all in all, the work will for a term of years undoubtedly be in constant use by students interested in the minutiæ of scholarship, and will be consulted along with the first volume of M. Brunetière's work, when that has finally appeared. On the other hand, as a compilation of detail and piecemeal information it is more likely to be superseded, or to require copious additions, as investigation of the sixteenth century proceeds, than would a work of broader scope.

From Tokio through Manchuria with the Japanese. By Louis L. Seaman, M.D., LL.B. Appleton & Co. 1905.

Commenting on the report of Col. Taylor of the British Army Medical Staff, upon the medical service of the Japanese in their war with China in 1894, where he pointed out that, notwithstanding occasional unavoidable overcrowding, "there were no cases of septicæmia," we said that "that establishes a record, a mark below which military surgery should not fall, but doubtless it will." The United States has since fought in Cuba, with a most commendable advance over the surgery of the civil war. "But during and following that six weeks' campaign the immediate and consecutive mortality from gunshot," says Dr. Seaman (p. 234), "was 268, while that from disease reached the appalling number of 3,862, or about 14 to 1." We have not verified the figures. Of 14,000 men sent by the French to Madagascar in 1894, 29 were killed in action and 7,000 died from preventable causes (p. 235). The Hiroshima hospital in Japan received, prior to August 1, 1904, 6,636 wounded and 3,226 other cases. Of these, 34, and only 34, had died up to that date. In the great base hospitals the wards for communicable diseases were conspicuously empty. There were some disorders of the chest, apparently from exposure to wet and cold, a few typhoid cases, and occasionally one of dysentery, indicating that such causes were active, but were controlled; for among the thousands in those institutions the intestinal conditions that ravage ordinary armies showed "scarcely a baker's dozen" of cases (p. 238). Now except for this voluntary and unofficial observer, these facts and the conditions on which they depend, so important to the world at large, would have been unknown to and unrecognized by that world. Dr. Seaman remarks with commendable severity that the War Department sent a cavalry officer to inspect the operations of the mounted service, which from the nature of its island home could have no very high development; but it could not, or did not, detail a medical officer to observe, in the interest of the fourteen men who may continue to die of disease as compared with the one who falls by the bullet (even if the secondary and pensionable disabilities are ignored), what this new people might have to offer in practical medicine.

The old conception that a military medical officer is a doctor and nothing more than a doctor—a civilian if one chooses—engaged simply to treat invalids, with hands tied for the removal of disease-causes however plainly he may see them, died hard in "civilized" armies. The Japanese, open to progress, realize that everything that tends to military efficiency has a place in the military system, and that it is just as important to maintain by intelligent sanitation the vigor of the troops when not actually in action, as it is to mask impatient batteries and conceal waiting infantry against unnecessary slaughter. In discussing the relative numbers of the combatants, a distinguished Japanese officer is reported as saying that his country proposed to neutralize the odds against it by eliminating disease as a factor, in the expectation that, as usual, four Russians would be disabled by sickness to one by the bullet (p. 240). Dr. Seaman thinks that expectation has been substantially realized, Utopian as it appears. He estimates that the Japanese disability from preventable disease in the first six months will prove to have been a fraction of one per cent., even in notoriously unsanitary Mantchuria. To that end the medical officer is at the front much more than at the rear, incessantly occupied with all those scientific observations and precautions on which in unhealthful regions health depends. And it appears that, such is the deference to official opinion, his directions are respected and complied with by officers and men alike. This, unfortunately at second hand, is the message the author brings, in painful contrast to what might be told from nearer home, were it expedient. He has clearly made known the results of the hospital work in Japan, and we deeply regret that he could not join the armies in the field and narrate from what he might see the exact situation there. For 'Through Manchuria with the Japanese' seems a publisher's title, rather than one strictly descriptive. Dr. Seaman did indeed reach the port of Niu-chwang by way of China proper before the Russians evacuated it, and he was there a little while after the exchange of flags. That brief experience agrees with his opinion expressed elsewhere, for only three cases of typhoid fever fell under his personal notice. But one may hardly suppose that the Japanese retained in camp many of their seriously ill while water communication was open. Still, it would be useful, and not simply the gratification of curiosity, to settle at first hand the exact state of their sick report.

Dr. Seaman's observations were not all professional. He had some amusing and exciting experiences with the Hung-hutzes (Chun-chuzes), ex-bandits, now nominally Chinese soldiery, many of whom were operating as guerillas on the Russian flank and communications under Japanese officers, as is charged (pp. 161-170). These gentry, more disposed to bring in an enemy's head than to trouble themselves with an entire prisoner, have their headquarters, beyond which the author penetrated toward Mukden, at Hsin-Min-Tung. A Cossack advance in force encouraged his departure. For some time he hovered around Chefoo, that centre of international fiction and friction, and four unsuccessful adventurous attempts to reach Port Arthur add interest to the tale. The cutting-out of the torpedo-boat *Reshitelny* was generally regarded by those on the spot as infringing neutrality, as a flagrant violation of international law. But the Russians had already openly and continuously maintained at this neutral city a wireless telegraph station (pictured at p. 178) in direct communication with their besieged fortress. *We* must remember the beam of the *Florida*, and England that of the *General Armstrong*, before too seriously condemning this Japanese mote. The formal *res gestæ* of war as affecting the rights of neutrals receive a valuable record in the note made from personal observation, and in the photograph *in situ*, of a Russian contact mine anchored in the fairway of the Gulf of Pechili, 38° 45′ N., 120° 34½′ E., a menace to neutral commerce, thirty miles from the blockaded port; and it was reported (p. 121) that the Japanese had picked up no less than twenty of these engines of destruction in the open sea, besides extracting numerous observation mines from positions along the coasts.

The farcical feature in this great struggle was the invasion of Japan by an uninvited handful of American female nurses. With no working knowledge of Japanese speech, and no practical familiarity with Japanese ways, they were drops, but incompatible drops, in the great bucket of the perfectly effective native organization. With characteristic courtesy the Government received these unsought guests and quartered them, as it might have sheltered a herd of white elephants, in an establishment at Hiroshima arranged for their foreign needs. There they may have observed others render with extreme skill the service they had in mind. With enviable gallantry the author chiefly dwells on this physical exhibition of international good will, and designates their reception as one of enthusiastic recognition of America's kindly feeling; adding that the limitations of the visitors compelled them "to play a somewhat minor part," but that they were useful in the surgical wards (p. 46). After a pleasant vacation these nurses-errant returned, and it is conceivable that with one party, if not with both, "Sayonara"

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may not have been an expression of pure regret.

The text is colloquial in manner. There are about forty illustrations, chiefly from photographs, many instructive.

In the Days of Chaucer.—In the Days of Shakespeare. By Tudor Jenks. With an Introduction by Hamilton Wright Mabie. A. S. Barnes & Co. 1904, 1905.

In the world of book-making, few problems are more rarely successfully solved than that of popularizing the results of research. Of making text-books, indeed, there is no end, and the need of bread and butter forces only too many of the scholars in our higher institutions of learning into this exhausting drudgery. But the presenting to the general reader of the riper fruits of investigation and speculation is too often left to the amateur and the hack, with the most disastrous results to truth and genuine enlightenment. Yet the matter is of great importance. So long as new facts remain buried in technical journals they are but slightly operative, and it is desirable that all attempts to make them accessible to the larger public should be honestly examined and appraised. The aim of the present volumes, and those on Milton and Scott that are planned to follow them, is to provide an introduction to the pleasurable reading of our great poets by a delineation of their personalities. The somewhat meagre biographical outline which is all that is possible in the case of Chaucer and Shakspere, is supplemented by an account of "the manners, customs, institutions, and happenings that made each what he was and are reflected in his poems," and by an appreciative discussion of the outstanding features of some typical works.

To readers who lay stress on accuracy and precision of statement rather than fluency and ease of style, it may seem ominous that the series is introduced by Dr. Hamilton W. Mabie. The Introduction is indeed discouraging. It is a familiar talk about Chaucer, implying a knowledge of that author which shows no sign of the writer's having gone beyond the Prologue to the Canterbury Tales. He is properly enthusiastic over that unsurpassed portrait gallery, but seems unaware that Chaucer also tried his hand at story-telling; and his vague generalizations about the "sweet-voiced singer" and "dreamer of fair dreams" will help no one to a truer conception of the poet or his work. On the whole, the books are better than this unfortunate start might lead us to expect. They contain much information, imparted vivaciously and succinctly, and fulfil to a considerable degree their promise of a concrete and vivid picture of the social and material surroundings of their subjects. As to accuracy, the verdict must be slightly less favorable. The mediævalist will be apt to sniff at a writer who undertakes to write on Chaucer and defines a *fabliau* as a fable in rhyme, names Thomas the Rhymer among the Scottish successors of Chaucer, and murders one of the greatest lines of his author by misquoting it, thus:

"The smiler with the knife hid under the cloak."

The Shaksperean will hardly think the book worth reading when he hears that Mr. Jenks considers Scott's sketch of Euphuism in 'The Monastery' lifelike, and still supposes that the "noverint" passage in Greene's "Menaphon" refers undoubtedly to Shakspere. Some compensation, however, may be found in the patriotism that places "the Revolutionary period of our own country" alongside of the age of Pericles as the only possible rival to the age of Elizabeth in the production of a "galaxy of celebrities."

In style the books are for the most part pleasant to read, but too often condescending. Simplicity and explicitness, such as are sufficient to bring writing within the comprehension of even quite young readers, can be attained without childishness; yet at times Mr. Jenks talks down to his audience in a manner that becomes offensive. But this fault is only occasional, and may easily be avoided in the remaining volumes.

From what has been said it will have appeared that Mr. Jenks is not a specialist giving to the public a choice selection from his own ample treasures, but rather a maker of books who can work up a congenial subject in a fairly satisfactory way. With a little more stress on accuracy, a little more manliness of style, and by taking as model (say) M. Jusserand or John Richard Green rather than Dr. Mabie, there is no reason why he should not make the succeeding volumes serviceable additions to the list of popular books about literature.

The United States of America. By Edwin Erle Sparks, Ph.D., of the University of Chicago. (Story of the Nations Series.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1904. 2 vols. Pp. xi., 425, viii., 378.

The title of the series of which this book is a part permits a great variety of treatment. Some of the series are stories indeed; some, true history. That of the United States might have been told from many different points of view, but Dr. Sparks has wisely chosen to limit himself to a particular theme, a single point of view; equally wise has he been, we think, in the choice of them.

"An effort is made in this narrative," says the preface, "to trace the gradual evolution of a confederated republic under the laws of necessity; to acknowledge that radical departures have been made from first ideals as a result of progress; to take into constant consideration the underlying forces of heredity and environment; . . . to show how the phrase 'The United States is' has been slowly and unconsciously evolved in the process of time from the early practice of saying 'The United States are.'"

The story being conceived in this light, it is plain that much will be omitted that otherwise might receive consideration. Dr. Sparks has not scrupled to omit whatever, in his judgment, has contributed nothing to the working out of the central theme. It was, nevertheless, still possible to proceed in one of two ways: to exhibit the growth of nationality in terms of concrete events related in some detail, or in terms of a commentary on events that are assumed to be generally known. Dr. Sparks has chosen the latter method. His book is in no sense a narrative of events—even of those events that were vital in the development of national sentiment. The reader will find in it but little of concrete fact; he will find more or less suggestive criticism rather than information set down in order. The work is, indeed, not a history of the United States, but an interpretation of United States' history.

The use of this method is sufficiently obvious throughout, but it may be best perceived, perhaps, in the chapters on the Articles of Confederation and the Louisiana Purchase. It would be difficult to learn the provisions of the Articles from Dr. Sparks's book, however clearly he may have pointed out their defects. It would be quite impossible to work out a connected account of the Louisiana Purchase from the chapter that is here devoted to the subject. That Monroe was appointed to assist Livingston (i., 286) is almost the only concrete fact that the author sets before us. The date of the appointment, the progress of the negotiations, the provisions of the treaty, the progress of the debates in Congress, the organization of the Territory—the facts which go to make up a narrative of the Louisiana Purchase—are alluded to, if at all, only incidentally, as something thoroughly familiar to the reader. On the other hand, the bearing of these events upon party politics, upon sectionalism, upon the theory of strict construction, is discussed at some length, suggestively, if not with originality or great force. So slight has been the effort to construct a narrative or provide orderly information, that to one unfamiliar with the history of the United States in some detail the work must, we should suppose, prove vague in the extreme and largely profitless. To one better instructed, on the other hand, it should prove suggestive and readable.

A book of this kind will, most probably, contain few positive errors, because it deals so slightly with facts that may be established or disproved. On the other hand, a captious critic might find something to cavil at on almost any page of the book. On the whole, Dr. Sparks's interpretation of the subject commends itself to us as sound. Without slavishly copying the ideas of other men, he has mainly given us conclusions justified by the best special studies which have appeared. The author's explanation of the rise of political parties appears to us to be an exception, however. Whether the United States should aid France or not, we are told, "brought about eventually the rise of parties in the United States" (i., 204). Again, the first epoch in the history of parties "turned entirely upon the choice of sides in the war between France and England" (i., 205). Party animosity would have been checked instead of advanced if "John Adams had been sent as Minister to France and Thomas Jefferson to England" (i., 207). The emphasis on this cause of party alignment is difficult to understand precisely because the author is primarily interested in exhibiting the conflict between centralization and localism. For the very same reason, too, we could wish that the importance of Calhoun's letter to Pakenham in "nationalizing" the slavery question had been pointed out. One is left with the impression that the Fugitive Slave Law was the first indication that the Southern leaders were giving up the old "local-institution" theory.

The illustrations which accompany the book are numerous and well chosen. They exhibit the author's familiarity with political caricature, just as the hundreds of incidental facts with which the book is filled exhibit his familiarity with the pamphlet, broadside, and newspaper sources of his subject.

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Old Florence and Modern Tuscany. By Janet Ross. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1904.

Mrs. Ross's volume on Florentine themes, ancient and modern, is full of varied interest. Some of these essays have seen the light in English magazines, but well deserve being collected into book form on account of their historical research and of their keen observation of actual conditions of peasant life in Tuscany. She begins with the history of the Misericordia, the confraternity of Pity. Visitors at Florence cannot fail to have been impressed by coming across a weird company of black enshrouded forms carrying a catafalque in the streets and in the lanes outside the city, hurrying along on some mission of mercy. There is a tradition that, in 1240, at the time Florence supplied cloth to foreign countries, many porters were employed carrying bales between the weavers and the dyers, and afterwards to the warehouses of the merchants. These porters had a refuge against wind and weather in certain cellars belonging to the Adimari in the Piazza del Duomo. One of their number, Piero Borsi, a devout man, shocked at their constant cursing and swearing, proposed that whoever took the name of God or the Holy Virgin in vain should as penance contribute a small coin to a box kept for the purpose. After a certain time, large sums having accumulated, Piero further suggested that six letters should be made, one for each quarter of the town, and that each porter should devote six days during the year to carrying the sick or those who had been victims of accidents to the hospitals, receiving for each journey a giulio. This origin of the Misericordia brotherhood has been, we are told, set aside by Passerini, the latest authority on the charitable institutions of Florence, who is of opinion that they are an offshoot of the Laudosi confraternity of Or-San-Michele, founded in 1292, who separated in 1326, during the pestilence caused in the city by the unburied corpses of those who fell at the battle of Altopascio.

In 1340 the plague again broke out in Florence, followed by the great plague of 1348, of which Boccaccio writes, when the sound of the brotherhood's measured tread about their work of removing the victims alone broke the silence of the stricken city. The Florentines made a gift of 35,000 golden florins to the confraternity in recognition of their heroism and devotion in burying the dead, taking charge of the orphans, and distributing food and clothes. Again in 1363 they proved their courage in behalf of the suffering during another outbreak of plague, and the large fortune of a Florentine usurer, Neri Boscoli, a banker of Naples of bad reputation, was bequeathed to them. The Misericordia had scruples as to accepting money procured by extortionate usury, and, having applied to the best theologians in Florence to decide this matter, accepted their decision, which was that their captains might receive the legacy; thus giving back to the poor what had been taken from them, after returning to those who could bring proof of exorbitant extortion the money that had been unjustly wrung from them.

Our author tells us that a century and a half before European cities instituted the registration of births, the Misericordia decreed that their notary should keep a book with the record of every child born within the city and of every person baptized in San Giovanni. Till then the priests kept count of the number by dropping black beans in a box for males and white for females. The books of the confraternity were swept away, unfortunately, in the inundation of the Arno, in 1557.

Notwithstanding the great services this institution continued to render to the State, it got into difficulties through the intrigues of the Medici, who induced the Signory to fuse it with the confraternity of S. Maria del Bigallo, which was given sole power to manage the funds. This led to the treasure hitherto entirely dedicated to the uses of the poor being squandered in junketings and festivities, and the brotherhood of Pity ceased to exist for a time. The need of their services was soon very keenly felt in the city, and in 1480 it was decided to reconstitute the confraternity by a fresh code of statutes, which remain unchanged to this day. Seventy-two brothers were ordained to minister to the needy, bury the dead, attend to the sick, and practise other needful charitable work without remuneration. Their privileges seem limited to a small monthly stipend to any of their number fallen into poverty, and the right to be buried in the cemetery of the Misericordia with fifteen masses for the repose of their souls, secured by a small annual payment.

Another chapter on old Florence treats of two Florentine hospitals, that of the Innocenti in the Via de' Servi, so well known through Andrea della Robbia's swaddled babies, which appeal to the public from Brunelleschi's graceful loggia, the asylum for illegitimate children built in 1421 under the auspices of the Guild of Silk Merchants in Por San Maria, and which continues to this day the good work of receiving these unfortunate infants, bringing them up and helping them to earn their living later on and serve their country. The other hospital is that of Santa Maria Nuova, built by Folco Portinari, the father of Dante's Beatrice, in 1288, a year before his death. It began with only twelve beds, but was enlarged in a very few years. Its history is remarkable, for it is said to have owed its origin to Monna Tessa, an old servant of the Portinaris, who devoted her later years to nursing a few sick people in a small house belonging to her master, who built the hospital at her instigation. In later centuries, it was held in such good fame abroad that Leo X. sent his physician from Rome to study its management, and Henry VIII. of England, wishing to establish such an institution in London, requested of Francesco de' Portinari a copy of its rules and regulations, which, needless to say, are not in accordance with the present ideas on hygiene, for it was not till 1650, after various changes in the direction and proprietorship, that each patient had a separate bed. This hospital used to be much visited by travellers on account of the magnificent triptych by Van der Goes, now in the Uffizi Gallery, painted in 1470 for Tommaso Portinari, head of the Medici Bank at Bruges.

Those who are interested in the present conditions of land tenure and agriculture in Tuscany may turn with advantage to the articles on the Mezzeria, Oilmaking, and Vintaging. Mrs. Ross knows the Tuscan people well, having lived for many decades in the country outside Florence in great sympathy with the workers of the soil. The most attractive article of all in this volume is on the popular songs of Tuscany, of which she has made a considerable collection, noting them down from the peasants in the country just as they are sung. Very different they are in form from the sophistications by the well-known composers, Gordigiani, Campani, etc. The illustrations of this instructive book are few and not up to the mark.

Modern Practical Electricity. By R. Mullineux Walmsley. Chicago: W. T. Keener & Co.

Appearances are against these four thin royal octavo volumes. They display a kind of ornateness by which the stern reviewer, lover of the leaden casket, refuses to be charmed. It is an ill omen, too, that the title-page bears no date and does not testify that this is a second edition, while the worn appearance of a good deal of the type does. Such lack of frankness creates a prejudice, and has caused the book to receive at our hands a more searching examination and comparison with other treatises than would ordinarily be bestowed upon a popular exposition of an established science. However, the final verdict is that an intelligent man of business or profession, who, by way of preparation for twentieth-century contingencies, would like, without too severe study, to understand the scientific basis of the wonderful inventions which have been revolutionizing life, and to learn as much as he easily can of the relation between practice and theory in electrics—so as, for example, to comprehend in some measure why one great company employs continuous current dynamos and others alternators—such a man cannot find a book better suited to his wants than this. That delight with which a work of genius like Maxwell's 'Theory of Heat' thrills him who reads it is not to be looked for from these volumes, but our readers understand what is the sort of cultivation required for the conscious enjoyment of a fine talent well trained; and they will take pleasure in noting the deftness of Dr. Walmsley's expositions. Clearness of statement is a small part of it. There is an accomplishment by which one suggests the right idea at the right moment and in the right form, a finish of expositional tactics, for which the science of electricity affords an interesting field. That art is Dr. Walmsley's; and in sinking those parts of the theory that need not perplex the reader, such as the displacement current, in so arranging the different sections of the book and governing their contents that each difficulty that is to follow shall find the reader in the precise state of preparation needed to meet it, he at one point forced us to exclaim: This is verily the high strategy of perspicuity! Yet it moves so smoothly that the reader will deem it a matter of course unless he goes to the trouble of comparing this work with others.

Extreme devotion to perspicuity has in one place had its inevitable disadvantage—namely, after explaining in considerable detail the arrangement and shape of the lines of force from a charged conductor placed near an uncharged one, and how those lines move when one of the conductors is moved about, until the reader fully possesses it, the author supposes a chain thrown over the uncharged conductor so as to connect it with the earth, and correctly

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enough says that the ensuing motion of the ends of the lines of force, during this discharge, is an electric current. To have analyzed the phenomenon into two parts would have been a monstrous blunder of exposition. But the author abstains from pointing out that the so carefully described features of the lines of force, with their perpendicularity to and termination at the surfaces of conductors, refer exclusively to a state of equilibrium, and cannot be expected to persist when the lines move with luminal velocity. Doubtless his reason was that, if he did that, he would have to indicate how these features would necessarily be modified under rapid motion, which would bring complications mountains high. Yet, as he has left the passage, we will venture to predict that no small perplexity will be occasioned for the innocent who is at first led to believe that the displacements of the lines of force in moving an insulated conductor about in an electric field accurately represent an electric current.

The book is undoubtedly a second edition; but it must have been radically remodelled in some parts, for not only are all the latest discoveries treated, but early chapters present features for which there could have been no motive except to prepare the reader for a clear understanding of the new developments.

Indian Basketry: Studies in a Textile Art without Machinery. By Otis Tufton Mason, Curator Division of Ethnology, U. S. National Museum. Doubleday, Page & Co. Two volumes, quarto, with 212 text figures and 248 full-page illustrations.

These two volumes, profusely and exquisitely illustrated, are comparable with the best ever brought out by the ethnologic offices at Washington, and this is certainly saying a great deal. The colored illustrations are nearly all of rare beauty. The work is an ornament as well as a source of very elaborate information on a subject whose importance is very properly indicated by the author in his first chapter: "Basketry is the mother of all loom work and beadwork. . . . It is the alpha of an art in which billions of capital are invested, millions of human beings are employed, whose materials and products are transported to earth's remotest limits, whose textures are sought by every tribe of mankind. It is from this point of view that the present work is written."

Naturally, the overwhelming majority of the material illustrated and discussed is derived from North America, or, rather, from the United States. Mexico, Central America, and South America furnish but little, for the obvious reason that not much from these regions is accessible in this country, or anywhere else as yet. May the exhaustive work of Professor Mason animate collectors to fill up the vacancy. It is true, however, that this city harbors quite a respectable gathering of basketry from the Peruvian coast, which Professor Mason does not seem to have deemed worthy of attention, probably because it contains but a limited number of different shapes. Neither is there any reference to the Calchaqui of the Argentine Republic, or to the basketry of the Amazonian tribes. But so far as our own country is concerned; the work is so elaborate that it might be regarded as exhaustive. Every kind of process is most minutely and accurately described, and, as often as possible, figured. Professor Mason has produced a model monograph.

While not by any means an appendix to Professor Mason's book, but an independent and equally elaborate discussion, also handsomely illustrated, we notice here the 'Basket Designs of the Indians of Northwestern California,' by A. L. Kroeber of the University of California, forming No. 4 of volume ii. of the University Publications on American Archæology and Ethnology. This conscientious and thorough study is a handsome addition to the literature of the subject.

Die Psalmen. Neu übersetzt und erklärt von Arnold B. Ehrlich. Berlin. 1905. 8vo. Pp. 438.

The author or commentator of this work lives in New York and writes English very well; he evidently thought that Bible students generally can read German, and that more of his books would be sold on the Continent of Europe than in England and America. As a Jew, and a thoroughly modern one, he does not, like many Christian divines, hunt in the Psalms for Messianic predictions; nor, like the Talmudic sages, for incidents in King David's life. Though he disclaims all sympathy with the "higher critics" in their efforts to fix late dates for the origin of Biblical books, and decries their habit of emendation whenever the Masoretic text offers difficulty, he is almost unwilling to place the composition of any Psalms earlier than the Maccabean age, and he "reads" something easy out of almost every outlandish word found in the Psalter. The headings of the Psalms, such as the third, which refer the composition to some event in David's life, he very properly rejects as unhistorical, and, moreover, as inappropriate. The musical terms, like "Lamnasseah" ("to the chief musician" of the English Bible), he does not translate, but marks their places with asterisks.

The author's interpretation of the poems fits the times in which he places their composition. Thus, he points out that the sinners in Ps. I., 1, are habitual sinners (such is the grammatical meaning of *hattaïm*), men who have given up the observance of the Mosaic law; and in the same verse he puts the "sitting" (the Arabic *mejlis*) for the "seat" of the scornful, who are not jolly fellows in the tavern, but educated disbelievers, talking seriously of their disbelief. The *holelim* of Psalm V. are to him *Griechler* (Hellenists), not fools, nor the arrogant; the Hebrew verbal root being coined from *Hellen*. Yet the materialism which the Psalmist combats is that of life rather than of the school; it is the hunt after wealth and pleasure.

Mr. Ehrlich is not satisfied with any vague, cloudy renderings; to him the poet always meant something definite. Thus, in dealing with that hard nut, Ps. IV., 4 (5 in the Hebrew), he turns it thus into German:

> Gönnt euch keine Ruhe, nur sündigt nicht!
> Zermartert euer Hirn auf eurem Lager, aber schweiget. Sela."

—and says that the poet thus addresses the fretful hunters after gain: Go on with your fretting, only stop short of actual sin; let your business cares trouble you even in bed; but keep your low sentiments to yourselves. And in the closing verse, the poet glories in his own freedom from cares and in his peaceful slumber; for he trusts himself to the Lord. But here, as elsewhere, the poet, when speaking in the first person, does not mean himself alone, but the whole patriotic class, party or sect for whom he speaks, and who are to sing his poems. In short, the Psalms are to Mr. Ehrlich a set of party campaign songs, as they are to most of the higher critics.

Our author finds a specific meaning also for the first half of the twenty-fourth psalm. It answers the problem of proselytes; any Gentile may "ascend the mount of the Lord" (enter the Temple yard as an Israelite) who is "clean of hands and pure of heart," etc., without assuming the yoke of the ceremonial law. In the second half of this psalm, which he considers a separate song, he falls into a grave anachronism. "The King of Glory enters" in the form of the Ark of the Covenant on its return from battle. But as all the psalms were, in our author's opinion, written long after the Babylonian exile, when the Ark of the Covenant was only a dim recollection, the poet could not have harbored such a thought, nor would the singers and hearers have caught the implication. The King mentioned as "His Anointed" in the second psalm, and the King of the 45th and 110th, were for our author post-exilic high priests, wielding, with or without the title, the royal power.

In Psalm CL. 1, the "expansion of his strength" is to our author not the sky, but the roof of the Temple; in parallelism to the first line, "Praise ye God in His Sanctuary." For this rendering of *raqia'* he brings some strong but not convincing proofs from later Hebrew writings.

Psalm CL. 6 is commonly rendered: "Every soul shall praise the Lord, Halleluiah." (The new version makes it, "Every breath," etc.") The Hebrew *neshamah*, as denoting a living creature, says our author, is, in the Bible, always used in a contemptuous sense; hence the old rendering makes an anti-climax. But as the praise of the Lord is to be sung, and to be intoned on horns and flutes, it is only fitting to wind up: "Jeder Atemzug sei ein Hallelujah!"

Our author shows, rather unjustly, but little faith in the authority of the Septuagint, for this version, if he is right as to the age of the psalms, was made so soon after their composition that the translators must have been in full touch with the poets. They certainly were in touch with Palestinian custom by denoting, in harmony with the Mishnah, the psalms for the days of the week.

Mr. Ehrlich, in his commentary, lays bare the ponderous apparatus with which he has done his work. There are the Septuagint, Vulgate, and Peshitto, the Talmud and the Midrashim, the mediæval Jewish and modern Christian and "critical" commentators, to cull from; though very often he cuts loose from them all. He calls in the help of Aramaic, Syriac, and Arabic; but never a word of Assyrian, now so popular among Bible students. He seems never to have looked into Assyrian grammar; for, in commenting upon *yeshuatah* in Psalm III., he claims that Hebrew shows two case endings only, the independent and dependent case; and in note (4) in the appendix of outlying erudition he tells his readers that Arabic also had only two cases, till, after the invention of the vowel points, three end vow-

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els for three cases were introduced. Declensions in a language are never gotten up by its grammarians; and the least acquaintance with the best-known Assyro-Babylonian book, Hammurabi's Code, convinces any one that the three case vowels belong to the oldest form of all Semitic languages.

Mr. Ehrlich's version, though often couched in strong idiomatic German, is written for the needs of the earnest student, not for the devotee or the lover of poetry. The stress laid in the notes on the historic background and on the standpoint of the writers must necessarily repel the reader from making the Psalms an expression of his own religious, ethical, or patriotic feeling.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ashley, W. J. The Progress of the German Working Classes in the Last Century. Longmans. 60 cents net.
Atkinson, Thomas Dinham. English Architecture. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Baedeker's London and its Environs. Scribners. $1.80 net.
Balkan Question. Edited by Luigi Villari. Dutton. $3 net.
Barry, William F. The Hygiene of the School Room. Silver, Burdette & Co.
Bennett, Robert Ames. For the White Christ. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Bradford, Gamaliel, jr. A Pageant of Life. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Brewer, Kate. Fanciful Tales from Legends of the Adirondack Indians. Neale Pub. Co. $1.
Browning's Blot in the 'Scutcheon, and Other Plays. The Belles-Lettres Series. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Burn, A. E. Niceta of Remesiana. Macmillan Co.
Burne-Jones, Sir Edward. Drawings. Scribners. $2.50 net.
Byles, C. E. The Life and Letters of R. S. Hawker. John Lane. $5 net.
Calendar of Letter-Books of the City of London at the Guildhall. (D. and E.) London.
Calkins, Earnest Elmo, and Ralph Holden. Modern Advertising. Appleton. $1.50 net.
Chadwick, H. Munro. Studies on Anglo-Saxon Institutions. Macmillan Co. $2.50.
Chaucer's Works. Facsimile of the Edition of 1532. Henry Frowde.
Christian, Eugene, Mr. and Mrs. Uncooked Foods and How to Use Them. Health Culture Co. $1.
Coleridge's Poems. Edited by William Knight. (Caxton Thin Paper Ed.). Scribners. $1.25 net.
Coll, Aloysius. The Harem, and Other Poems. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.50.
Coombs, Howard A. The Art of Generating Gear Teeth. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cts.
Coptic Version of the New Testament. Vols. III. and IV. Henry Frowde.
Cox, Kenyon. Mixed Beasts. Fox, Duffield & Co. $1 postpaid.
Craven, John J. Prison Life of Jefferson Davis. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.20 net.
Crosby, Ernest. Edward Carpenter: Poet and Prophet. London: Arthur C. Fifield.
Duncan, Norman. Dr. Grenfell's Parish. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1 net.
Dunn, jr., J. P. Indiana. New ed. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Dürer, Albrecht. Drawings. Scribners. $2.50 net.
Ellis, Edward S. Imitation of Christ. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Fenn, Frederick, and B. Wylie. Old English Furniture. Scribners. $2.50 net.
Fish, Carl Russell. The Civil Service and the Patronage. Longmans.
Fletcher, B., and B. F. A History of Architecture. Scribners. $6 net.
Florence. Painted by Colonel R. C. Goff. Described by Clarissa Goff. Macmillan Co. $6.
Forman, Justus Miles. Tommy Carteret. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Fowler, Egbert Willard. Poems. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.50.
Geikie, Sir Archibald. Landscape in History. Macmillan Co.
Goldring, William. The Book of the Lily. John Lane. $1 net.
Gratacap, L. P. The World as Intention. Eaton & Mains. $1.25 net.
Grenfell, Wilfred T. The Harvest of the Sea. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1 net.
Gwynne, Paul. The Bandolero. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Hale, E. E. Man Without a Country. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 35 cents.
Hanchett, Henry G. The Art of the Musician. Macmillan Co. $1.50 net.
Hancock, H. Irving. The Physical Culture Life. Putnams. $1.25 net.
Harcourt, Helen, and Mary B. Mahon. Southern Stories for Little Readers. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 30 cents.
Harper, William Rainey. The International Critical Commentary on Amos and Hosea. Scribners. $3 net.
Harrison, Frederic Chatham. Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.
Hawthorne's Wonder Book. Edited by L. E. Wolfe. Macmillan Co.
Hee, Robert C. H. The Steam-Engine. Vol. I. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.50 net per vol.
Henderson, W. J. Pipes and Timbrels. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Hocking, Salome: Belinda the Backward. London: Arthur C. Fifield. 2s. net.
Homer's Iliad. Translated by George Chapman. (Caxton Thin Paper Ed.) Scribners. $1.25 net.
Homer's Odyssey. Translated by George Chapman. (Caxton Thin Paper Ed.) Scribners. $1.25 net.
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